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ART. I. *The Works of Sallust*; to which are prefixed Two Essays on the Life, Literary Character, and Writings of the Historian; with Notes historical, biographical, and critical. By Henry Steuart, LL.D., Fellow of the Royal Society, and of the Society of Antiquaries of Edinburgh. 4to. 2 Vols. pp. 1305. 4l. 12s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin.

TRANSLATORS and commentators have long been reproached with amplification and verbosity; and while the incompeteney of the former has often mistaken or impoverished the meaning of an author, the wandering conjectures of the latter have frequently ascribed to him ideas and allusions which he never entertained. It is not only, however, that

"—Learned Commentators view
In Homer more than Homer knew;"

nor that they occasionally murder passages under the torture of their conversion, but they sometimes almost annihilate their whole prototype by burying it under the disproportionate load of their own accretions. On these occasions, we cannot always refrain from calling to mind the anecdote of the good woman in North Britain; who, after having heard a *Mess John* deliver a long harangue in exposition of a text of scripture, declared her dissatisfaction to a neighbouring gossip, by observing that when the Divine had read the chapter as it was printed in the Bible, she understood it very well, and thought it very good; but, when he had been *expoonding and expoonding it above an hour, she did no' understond it at a'*.

Shall we apply any or all of these remarks to the publication before us? The reader shall decide when he has perused the present article: but the mere circumstance of the writings of Sallust being rendered the basis of two large quarto volumes will perhaps make him tremble for the fate of the foundation, and contemplate the superstructure with fearful amazement.

The first of these massy volumes contains two essays; the life and genius of Sallust forming the subject of the one,

and his literary character and writings being treated in the other. It also comprises translations of the two letters addressed to Cæsar *de Republicâ Ordinandâ*, which are generally attributed to the historian. In the second volume, we are presented with translations of the Catilinian Conspiracy, and the Jugurthine War. Very copious notes are subjoined to each of these productions; and a Preface introduces the whole publication, which may be considered as an Index-map to the extensive Chart before us, pointing out by reference the regions delineated on a larger scale, and possibly also abridging the labors of a majority of those who inspect it, by deterring them from any examination of the stupendous original.

The Essay on the Life and Genius of Sallust lays bold claim to the merit of collecting a greater mass of knowlege on the subject than has ever before been brought together: yet, after having carefully perused it with all its notes, and after having balanced the doubts and considered the arguments adduced,—instead of indulging in the self-gratulation that results from the communication of new lights, and the participation of ingenious discoveries,—we calmly paused to inquire what addition Dr. Steuart had made to our old stock of information, derived from the unassuming memoirs of earlier writers. We had indeed been furnished with much explanation of such of the Roman customs as are most universally understood; with many anecdotes of those Roman characters which to all, who have any acquaintance with the history of that period, are nearly as familiar as their own concerns; and with copious extracts from Cicero and Plutarch, Dr. Middleton and Dr. Adam, which we think it was unnecessary to transcribe, because we do not apprehend that the present work will supersede the well-known productions of those established authors:—but, after all this, the character of Sallust remained unaltered in our view. Loose and profligate in his pleasures, corrupt in his politics, the enemy of Cicero and the friend of Clodius, the agitator of the mob and the outcast of the Senate, he embarked at length with Cæsar in his conspiracy against the free constitution of his country. He served under that great commander in the civil war: but, though his present panegyrist has extolled his military virtues, we find only two of his exploits recorded: in the first of which he captured an undefended island; and in the second, having the command of some troops which mutinied against him, he fled secretly from them in the height of their violence; in consequence of which desertion, they massacred all the persons in authority within their reach. The

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reward of his treason against the commonwealth was a province, in which he amassed enormous riches by plunder and extortion, which he preserved by means of the grossest bribery, and wasted in luxurious dissipation. Though his writings may make some atonement for his conduct, their rigid morality proves that he sinned with his eyes open, and convicts him either of unblushing effrontery or of odious dissimulation.

Such is the idea of Sallust which common opinion has adopted from his ordinary biographers, and Dr. Steuart does not even suggest an alteration in the general facts from which it is derived. Yet he is very unwilling to admit, in direct terms, that which his own narrative completely proves; and the general reasoning, by which he would exculpate his hero, is contained in the following passage:

'As vice and virtue are qualities diametrically opposite in their nature, we may assert, that the existence of the one, in any remarkable degree, necessarily implies the absence of the other. Great intellectual culture, and great intellectual debasement, have a close analogy to these qualities, and are often their respective concomitants: accordingly it may be believed, that the former can no more coalesce with gross excesses of vice, than the latter can have place amidst high sentiments of virtue. If this be true, it will follow, of course, that the evidence, which would attribute to Sallust almost every crime, that can disfigure and degrade human nature, must, even at first sight, appear suspicious; and it will be still more invalidated, when we reflect, that he, who found leisure only for so great and continued mental efforts, could not probably be sunk, as is supposed, in the lowest depths of profligacy.'

We wish, for the sake of humanity, that this theory were just: but we fear that, if the example of Catiline himself were insufficient, the history of Napoleon would but too clearly evince the possibility of uniting the most extraordinary intellectual powers with the most degrading moral turpitude.

Besides this metaphysical apology, the present translator appears as a legal advocate to defend his client from a particular charge, under which he has long laboured; and, though it is immaterial whether such a man as Sallust was guilty or innocent of some one offence more or less, we shall present our readers with a specimen of the style in which his defender comments on evidence.

It has been generally believed, on the authority of Aulus Gellius, who cites the fact from Varro, (*fide homo multâ et gravis*,) that Sallust the historian, the severe and censorious Sallust, was detected in an amour with Fausta, the daughter of Sylla, and wife of Milo; and that the enraged husband carried

his vengeance so far as even to inflict a whipping on the adulterer. The manner in which this anecdote is introduced, and the contrast studiously drawn between the moral writings of the historian and this ignominious occurrence, afford a decisive proof that Aulus Gellius did not mistake as to the person so chastised. In a note on Virgil's expression in the sixth Æneid, "*Quique ad adulterium cæsi,*" Servius states that the *historian Sallust* is the person here meant; and the same is affirmed by Acron and Porphyrion in their comments on a similar passage in Horace, in which the poet enumerates a flagellation among the inconveniencies of illicit gallantry. At the distance of a few verses, some person of the name of Sallust is taxed with an excessive attachment to the daughters of freed-men; which the scholiast illustrates by an anecdote of the *historian*, who boasted in the senate that he confined his amours to women of inferior rank; and it is inferred that the chastisement previously received at the hands of Milo was sufficient to deter him from running any farther hazards by intriguing in the families of the great and powerful. The event is mentioned by Asconius Pedianus, and other grammarians, to have been seized by his enemies as the pretence for expelling him from the Senate; and it easily accounts for the activity and eagerness with which, when a tribune of the people, he entered on the prosecution of Milo.

That a circumstance of such a nature should receive such a variety of direct and indirect corroboration may seem rather surprising: but that it should now be controverted was beyond all expectation. The main argument, on which Dr. Steuart founds his refutation, is this: the old scholiasts on Horace imagine that the Sallust described in the satire above quoted is the same Sallust to whom the ode, beginning "*Nullus argento color est,*" is inscribed; and as it is proved that this ode was addressed not to the historian, but to one of his nephews, the disgrace of the whipping must be transferred from the former to the latter. In answer, we shall merely observe that the evidence of the fact is not derived from Horace, in speaking of Sallust, but from his commentators, in explaining the phrase "*flagellis ad mortem cæsus*;" that Dr. S. himself characterizes this assertion of identity as an *error*, (p. 114.) which we deem a very pardonable one, considering that it is perfectly immaterial to the elucidation of Horace, either in the satire or the ode; and that no explanation is offered of the contrary affirmations made by those scholiasts themselves, of Servius, of Asconius Pedianus, and of Aulus Gellius. The other strong argument is drawn from the suppression of the anecdote in the oration against Sallust that passes under the name of Cicero;—an

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oration which the Doctor himself uniformly stigmatizes as the fiction of a declaimer, in which no regard was paid to the truth of the accusations preferred, nor any object considered but the unrestrained indulgence of virulent and *fabricated* invective.

At any rate, Dr. Steuart's views in this respect are not entirely free from doubt; and as they are at variance with the general persuasion of the learned, from the scholiasts on Horace and Virgil to Meisner and Murphy, it might have been decent to bring them forwards with modesty and mildness, and to have abstained at least from any expressions of contempt against those who may hold a contrary opinion. Yet the President de Brosses is overpowered by the Doctor's virtuous indignation; the remarks of Meisner are considered as too absurd to be refuted; and Le Clerc is not only charged with error and inaccuracy, but is perpetually accused of being prompted to deliberate misrepresentation, by a strange malignity and personal hatred against the Roman historian. Our readers will, we are confident, dispense with our investigating the probability that such motives should have actuated that acute and liberal scholar; they will also duly appreciate the wisdom of Dr. Steuart, in accusing such a man of folly: (p. 77.) but, if the *manes* of departed men of letters are still permitted to survey the productions of literature, those of Le Clerc will certainly find ample compensation for the vehemence with which he has been attacked, in the following *morceau* of objurgatory eloquence:

'Concerning the principles on which the style of Sallust was formed, what has been here offered is a much more probable, and, surely, a more liberal account, than the virulent decision of the biographer, who asserts, that severity of precept, and elevation of language were assumed, by the historian, as a cloak to licentiousness of manners By affecting, he says, the antiquated phraseology of the old republic, Sallust hoped to persuade the reader, that his life had been a transcript of the virtues of a former day. As well might we say of Le Clerc, the author of this remark, that his own imitation of the antient models sprung from a similar cause. The satisfaction, we might allege, which he visibly betrays in the reprehension of Sallust, was but a cover to the consciousness that the same irregularities were imputable to himself. He, who deliberately mangles the reputation of another, can have no cause to complain, if severe reprisals be made upon his own; and the manes of Sallust, we may believe, were sufficiently pacified, when the Professor of Amsterdam afterwards smarted under the lash of Bentley, and the intolerable abuse of the elder Burman.'

In the Second Essay, the avowed subject of which is the literary character of Sallust, we found, as soon as we could

extricate ourselves from the endless mazes of diction in which all the author's propositions are involved, that the opinions of the present critic are in complete unison with those of all mankind. Sallust is described as a profound and original thinker, a sagacious observer of character, and an animated and generally impartial relater of facts: but his style is admitted to be occasionally harsh and abrupt; and his honesty is fairly questioned on account of the slight and careless manner in which he speaks of the most conspicuous actor in defeating the conspiracy of Catiline. These truisms assume the appearance of paradoxes, and challenge opposition, by being maintained with a zeal truly controversial; and the author betrays as much soreness in his manner, as if the learned of all ages had entered into a general conspiracy to degrade and revile the intellectual character of Sallust. Observations to his disadvantage are scraped together from all quarters, to prove the Doctor's skill in apologies; and even the forgotten criticisms of Sir John Cheke and Roger Ascham are revived in order to be overthrown. If Dr. S. be correct in withholding from Tacitus the praise of being 'the first of historians who applied the science of philosophy to the study of facts,' he has surely been guilty of great injustice to the immortal historians of Athens, by conferring a similar title on Sallust.

Le Clerc's opinion, that the historical works in question were composed immediately after the author's tribunate had expired, is rendered improbable by Dr. Steuart's observations, p. 241: but we see no reason for condemning the conjecture of Dr. Middleton, adopted by Dr. Adam, that Cicero's name was mentioned with coldness and injustice because it was obnoxious to envy *in the reign of Augustus*. The essayist argues that this could not possibly be the historian's motive; because the reign of Augustus did not commence till the victory was obtained by him at Actium, at which time Sallust had been dead four years. It is certainly true that the empire of Augustus was not secured till Antony was defeated at Actium: but his power was established *at Rome* almost from the moment of his uncle's death; and his jealousy of praise bestowed on the eloquent republican would naturally be most alive while the issue of the contest was doubtful, and the recollection of his own cruelty and baseness was yet fresh in the minds of his countrymen. Unless, therefore, we sacrifice sense to a sound, we shall be satisfied that, for the purpose of influencing the conduct of a writer devoted to the cause of Augustus, he was in fact the *reigning emperor* at least twelve years before the battle of Actium.

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This Essay concludes with a complete catalogue of the editions and translations of Sallust; omitting, we think, no other than the stereotype of Didot, which is indeed the less valuable because it does not comprise the two epistles to Cæsar. The several translations are treated with great freedom, and some severity: one is too servile, another too licentious; one is fettered by the restrictions of a foreign idiom, another is disfigured by colloquial barbarism; one is censured for the absurd vanity of containing a smaller number of words than the original, another is made tame and languid by excessive diffusion:—

"*Eheu!*
Quam temerè in nosmet legem sancimus iniquam!"

Concerning the principles on which classical translations in general ought to be conducted, it seems that we must not presume to offer any observations; since the orthodox faith has been settled on the other side of the Tweed, and is recorded in a treatise by Mr. Tytler, now Lord Woodhouselee, to whom the present work is dedicated. Dreading, as we do, the imputation of barbarism and heresy, we shall express our opinions on this subject in the modest and sensible language of the late Dr. Rose; whose translation of Sallust, printed in the year 1751, (the first edition anonymous,) is certainly not praised too highly by his present competitor. In that unpretending publication, we find the following remarks at p. iv. of the preface: "His (Dr. Rose's) great aim has been to preserve a due medium between a verbal, and too bold and free a translation; having made it his first care to preserve the sentiment of his author, and his next, to adhere to his words, as far as he was able to express them in an easy and natural manner,"—thus presenting the young scholar with such a version as has "all the advantages of literal translation, without its flatness,"—and at the same time furnishing those, who are entirely ignorant of Latin, with such an account of the events related by Sallust, "as should have something of the air of an original."

Dr. Steuart has offered an apology for a marked peculiarity of style, which strikes us as both novel and judicious:

'It has been said by some critics, but, I think, without justice in regard to history, that the most perfect style, like the most perfect countenance, should have no prominent, or peculiar features. If this be the case, from whence shall it derive its strength and energy? Strength of feature, whether of countenance, or of composition, seems inseparable from some portion of characteristic peculiarity. A writer's style is supposed to reflect the image of his

mind: and I cannot conceive how it should enhance the value, or add to the interest of that image, to refine it to any arbitrary standard, which should efface its identity.'

Now it is obvious that, if the translator of a work of this character be required only to consider what was intended to be expressed in the original, and may conceive that his duty is well discharged when he has conveyed the same meaning in that English style which happens to be fashionable, here is an end of all that is interesting and energetic in singularity. Under such a system, it will be idle to discuss the distinctive qualities of Sallust, Livy, and Tacitus; one useful purpose of studying the immortal works of the antients, in fixing standards of taste, and resisting the capricious fluctuations of speech, is entirely defeated; and the various striking features, which adorned their noble edifices, will be planed down at once to the same flat surface of modern insipidity.

Of the manner in which Dr. Steuart has executed his task, we are naturally desirous of forming the most favorable judgment, since we have some reason for supposing that the public are partly indebted for this elaborate work to the Monthly Review. In p. xi. of the preface, we are complimented by a quotation of the remark which a perusal of Mr. Murphy's Tacitus suggested to us, on the deficiency of good translations from the antient authors*. We will frankly own, however, that, if we had been consulted as to the classic of whose works a translation was most wanted, we should not have fixed on Sallust; to whom, in our opinion, Dr. Rose's convenient version, in a neat and portable form, accompanied perhaps by a commentary on the contemporary history, would have done complete justice: but, as we felt ourselves obliged to censure Mr. Murphy as too paraphrastic, the present translator can hardly be surprised at our objections to his mode of representing his author. That his style bears no resemblance to that of Sallust, he appears by no means unwilling to acknowlege; how far he has excelled his master, or whether indeed he has given the contents of his

* As we see no ground for altering the observation to which Dr. S. refers, we here take occasion to repeat it: "There is no department, in which the English have less excelled, than in translations from Greek and Roman authors. It is singular that, with a numerous body of clergy, whose leisure is so liberally patronized by the nation, and who pique themselves on classical acquirements, there should still remain a single ancient writer inaccessible to those who cultivate only the language of their native country." M.R. Vol. xii. N.S. p. 194.

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works with fidelity and in a good English style, we shall now attempt to enable our readers to form an estimate.

The distinguishing characteristic of this translator is a modest consciousness of the defects of his author, combined with a charitable wish to supply and correct them from the ampler stores of his own mind. He is by no means satisfied with conveying what has been said, but has generously added much more, which Sallust would no doubt have been happy to express if his understanding had suggested it, or his powers of language could have done justice to it. In a word, he is an indulgent tutor, inserting all those graceful additions and amplifications, which are requisite for displaying to the best advantage the imperfect exercises of a youthful pupil. We pass over the comparatively insignificant subject of the Epistles to Cæsar, (which we are on the whole inclined to regard as genuine, though not exactly for the reasons offered by Dr. Steuart,) and proceed at once to that master-piece of historical composition, the Conspiracy of Catiline. The prœmium, which is occupied in discussing the metaphysical question whether the mental or bodily powers are intitled to the preference, closes with a short and simple statement of the author's motives for writing history: "*Sed ego adolescentulus initio*," &c. In this passage, though all common readers have agreed with Sallust in thinking that enough had been expressed for any useful purpose, Dr. Steuart has liberally thrown in a large gratuity of supererogatory ornament, by rendering the particle *sed* into the following sentence: '*for myself, I know not how far I am qualified for this undertaking.*' In the next paragraph, *eó magis* is modernised into this literary egotism—'*For a task like this I trust I am the better fitted.*'—but these are trifles.

The character of Catiline, as drawn by Sallust, has been so thoroughly studied by all scholars, that we shall deny ourselves the gratification of extracting it: but our readers would be intitled to complain, if we observed a similar conduct in respect to Dr. S.'s representation of it:

'Lucius Catiline was descended from a family of illustrious rank. He possessed, in an eminent degree, both vigour of mind, and bodily strength; but his disposition, which *naturally was wicked, was rendered, by habit, profligate and irreclaimable.*

'Catiline delighted in broils, in civil commotion, in rapine and bloodshed. In such scenes he had mingled from his early years, *eager to exercise his talents for mischief.* With a constitution capable of enduring, beyond belief, the extremes of cold, of want, and of continued watching, he united a spirit, which was, at once, daring, crafty, and versatile. He could frame any falsehood; he could dissemble any truth; *ever ready to support an artificial character. In the gratification*

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of his appetites he was *fierce and ungovernable;* covetous, *to a degree,* of the possessions of others, prodigal, *alike,* of his own fortune; and, while copious and voluble in talk, endued with but a small share of solid understanding. *Yet* the genius of the man was towering and romantic. His ambition was altogether of that ardent sort, which loves the vast and the incredible, and aims at objects wholly beyond its attainment.

'Such being the manners and character of Catiline, it can excite no wonder, if, after the example of Sylla, he deeply fixed his wishes on the supreme power, and subverting the government. *Fired by the success of that usurper, he burned to enter on a like splendid career,* and felt no scruple about the means. The ruin of his fortune, together with the consciousness of many crimes, had stung his fierce spirit with remorse aud disappointment; and these evils could not fail to be encreased, by the depraved habits and propensities, which I have already enumerated. *Nor was the profligacy of Catiline without the incitement of example.* The Roman manners, in this period, *furnished a complete school of corruption.* In the same people they displayed the deplorable union of avarice and luxury, at once the worst, *although, to appearance, the most inconsistent* of vices.'

The improvements are numerous and striking! Who would think it possible to erect so fine a superstructure on the simple basis, *ingenio malo pravoque?* — and the discovery of 'the real distinction between the epithets *Malus* and *Pravus,* which does not seem to have been made by translators in this place,' is announced with no small exultation in a note at p. 104. '*Malus* applies to *that species* of wickedness, which is radical, and inherent by nature: *Pravus* to that which is the fruit of habit and of exercise.' Without discussing with the Doctor this system of radical and inherent vice, we shall merely observe that the difference, which has generally been remarked between these two adjectives, is that *malus* originally means *bad,* and *pravus* is employed on moral subjects metaphorically, as it is applicable, in its literal interpretation, only to crookedness and deformity: but we are exclusively indebted to the acuteness of Dr. Steuart for the discovery that Horace wished to describe two different feelings, when he talked of *malus pudor,* and *pudens pravé;* and without his aid we should not have imagined that a mis-shapen nose and ancles (*pravo naso, pravis talis,*) were "the fruit of habit and of exercise."

We forbear to pursue our comments on this celebrated passage. Every learned reader has already remarked its needless amplification of phrase, and its perpetual inversion and dislocation of sentences; while the translator's additions to the admirable traits, *alieni appetens, sui profusus,* may be taken as fair specimens of the grace, the energy, and the perspicuity, which Sallust has generally gained from Dr. Steuart. Indeed, if we extracted the whole of this translation

tion, it would be impossible to convey a more correct idea of the merits of its author than that which may be derived from the foregoing passages; and it is this circumstance alone which induces us to be perhaps unusually sparing of our citations.—One part of the work, however, deserves our peculiar notice. We speak of the immortal orations of Cæsar and Cato; the former distinguished for an unparalleled concentration of the general maxims of moral wisdom and political sagacity; the latter, admirable for its vigorous decision in a case of impending danger;—and both displaying that grand and simple energy of style, which characterises powerful minds when deeply interested on the most important occasions. Will it be believed that Cæsar's remonstrance against the orators who had enlarged on the probable miseries of the menaced revolution,—"*Sed, per deos immortales, quó illa oratio pertinuit? an uti vos infestos conjurationi faceret? scilicet, quem res tanta et tam atrox non permovit, eum oratio accendet,*"—will it be believed that such an original could be rendered thus?

'By the immortal Gods! what means *such declamation?* Do those, *who indulge in it, for a moment* imagine, that a Roman *Senate will supinely wait, to be inflamed* against conspiracy, by such *expedients? Let me ask them, what have bloody treason and real danger to do with oratory? Where the approach of the former fails to strike, will the brightest colours of the latter be heeded?*'

"*Non ita est: neque cuiquam mortalium injuriæ* SUÆ *parvæ videntur: multi eas gravius æquo habuere.*" The peculiar force of this observation is lost in the version; 'No! Conscript Fathers; *believe me,* the wrongs that *men endure are but too apt* to awaken vengeance;'—and then, because Sallust was unable to treat his subject, the Doctor adds for him: 'It is the part of wisdom to turn away its edge, and check its fury.'

With the greatest good sense, Cæsar proceeds to enforce the policy of lenity and moderation in governors, who do not, like meaner individuals, possess the privilege of indulging their passions, uncensured and unobserved; since their eminent rank exposes their actions to general notice, and draws down on them the most invidious construction. This topic is ushered in by the remark, "*Sed aliis alia licentia;*" and the translator's method of preserving the rapid and glowing character of this pithy argument is by wiredrawing these four words into the following sentence: 'Of the *nature* of resentment *it may be truly observed,* that it *operates* variously, in various classes of mankind.' Of the *nature* or the *operation* of resentment, not a syllable is observed either by Sallust or by Cæsar.

We have only one remark to add in respect to this oration. The last branch of Cæsar's proposition in the Senate (which Dr. Steuart calls his 'sentiment,') involves a tautology in the translation that is not to be found in the original; and the English wording of it is neither so intelligible, nor so grammatical, as we have reason to believe that the clear and simple decrees of antient Rome universally were;—"and lastly let *it* be made *treason* in the man, who shall *act contrary hereto, declaring* him a *traitor*, and a *public enemy*."

To the answer of Cato, we must beg to be excused from paying much minute attention. It is enough to inform the reader that it is executed in the same style; and those, who are most capable of feeling the fervid energy of the Roman patriot, will be most struck with the powers that could metamorphose such an original into the diffuse *verbiage* of a modern newspaper. The contrast drawn by Sallust between those illustrious men is so far from satisfactory to his translator, that he has added a long disquisition, in the form of a note, on the character of Cato. The greater part of this supplement had been previously inserted in the notes to Dr. Steuart's first volume, and nearly the whole may be found in the work of Middleton; who constantly endeavours to lower our estimation of Cato, in revenge for his refusing to vote the unmerited honours of a triumph to the importunate vanity of Tully.

Most of the translators of Sallust, conscious that his narrative of the Conspiracy is in some parts defective, and in others not perfectly correct as to time, have subjoined the cotemporaneous evidence of Cicero; by comparing whose four orations with the historical work, all chasms are filled up, and every mistake may be easily corrected. Dr. Steuart has not pursued this course: but, drawing all the material facts that required notice from the same authority, he has appended them, in the form of notes, to his translation. This possibly may be the best method of rendering the recital distinct; yet it appears to us that the English reader, in thus losing the splendid harangues of the consul, is deprived of some of the most striking features in the *character* of the transaction.

Nothing is more unfavorable to the permanent reputation of works of general literature, than a studious appeal to such topics as derive their interest from the fleeting political passions of a day. The rancorous prejudices that disgraced the early periods of the last war, exaggerating all dangers and distorting every object, might possibly enjoy a perverse gratification in comparing the Earl of Lauderdale and the parliamentary

parliamentary minority to Catiline and his accomplices, and Mr. Pitt to Cicero: but the truly liberal and enlightened mind, far from appealing to vulgar animosities and reviving past jealousies, will regard it as the noblest privilege of letters to tranquillize the agitations of the public mind, and recall it from animosity and violence to moderation and humanity. If we were therefore somewhat surprised to recognize, in Dr. Steuart's enumeration of the English translations of his author, a work published about twelve years ago, the main object of which was to draw in glaring colours the preposterous parallels above mentioned, what was our astonishment when we encountered, in the second volume, the quotation of long and virulent passages from the same tract; passages which display neither force nor eloquence, but which prove that the book could never have had any other merit than that of flattering the passions, and promoting the views, of a powerful and intolerant party?—Perhaps, we shall not obtain the Doctor's thanks for the apology which we are about to offer for the loss of his good humour, by suggesting that it may have yielded in the present instance to the pardonable vanity of authorship: yet nothing, we think, but the partiality of a *parent* can account for the tenderness which he has shewn towards the forgotten offspring of *George Frederic Sidney, Esquire*,—a name which, as he himself assures us, is merely *fictitious*.—Having touched on this subject, we cannot omit to subjoin the political creed of Dr. Steuart, as professed in the following passage: 'It must be acknowleged that the coincidence is *sufficiently* striking, and might afford a proof, if such a proof were needful, that the real views of REFORMERS have almost *always* had the same objects, the gratification of their ambition, and the overthrow of the governments whose protection they experienced.'

As we hope that we have conveyed to our readers a correct idea of the manner in which Dr. Steuart has translated Sallust, and commented on him, in our remarks on the Catilinian conspiracy, it may be enough to say of the Jugurthine war that it falls under the same description in both particulars: but, as neither the persons nor the events connected with the latter subject are so universally known, as those of which mention is made in relating the former, a greater air of novelty and interest is discernible in the notes. Still, our patience is put to some trials, when Dr. Steuart ascends the chair of judicial criticism. As Sallust's history treats of the grandson of Masinissa, the interesting story of that monarch is not improperly introduced into the notes, from Livy. Sophonisba's answer on receiving the fatal

present from her husband, which was designed to rescue her from the degradation of appearing in a Roman triumph, has drawn forth as many tears as any anecdote on record: "*Accipio nuptiale munus, nec ingratum; si nihil majus vir uxori præstare potuit. Hoc tamen nuntia; meliùs me morituram fuisse, si non in funere meo nupsissem:*"—an unexampled union of force, tenderness, and simplicity. Dr. Steuart, however, accuses Livy of indulging in a quaint and declamatory style; and the conclusion of the speech is stigmatised as so intolerably vicious, that 'an attempt is here made to improve it in the translation.' We must not with-hold from a circulation as general as it is in our power to bestow, Dr. Steuart's improvement on Livy: but, lest our readers should imagine that we are actually imposing on them for the sake of a joke, we desire to state that the following improved translation is to be found near the top of the five hundred and twelfth page of Dr. S.'s second volume:—"I accept with gratitude, (said the magnanimous Sophonisba, as she drank the cup,) this *pleasing though fatal* marriage-gift, since it *is all* that Masinissa has to offer to his queen. Tell him, that *I die without fear*; and it would *also be without regret, had the transition been less cruel*; had not the nuptial *couch* unhappily been spread for me, *on the brink of the grave.*" It is thus that Dr. Steuart improves Livy, and avoids the faults of the declaimers!

We are really much inclined to think that the dying speech of Micipsa, in which he exhorts his two sons and his nephew to unanimity, did not require illustration from the trite apologue of the bundle of arrows. That old friend is indeed presented to us with a new face; and we were prepared to expect some important information, when at p. 520 it was announced to us that 'Scilurus, a *certain antient* king, as we learn from Stobæus, being on his death-bed, called together his *eighty* sons; and, putting into their hands a bundle of arrows,' &c.—It would, however, be unjust to deny that many of the notes, and these in particular which relate to the geography and early population of Africa, are both entertaining and instructive. Dr. Steuart has freely and very judiciously drawn from Major Rennell's work on Herodotus, and Dr. Shaw's account of his travels. The map, also, appears to us correct, and might, on a smaller scale, be advantageously placed at the head of the common school editions of the Jugurthine War.

With pleasure we add that the military details are placed in a clear and satisfactory point of view; and the doubts which have long existed in regard to Metellus's mode of forming his troops, as described in the 53d section*, are here removed

* Dr. Steuart makes it the 53d, but in most editions it is the 49th.

by

by a reference to the sixth book of Polybius, in which the march of a Roman army is explained, and by distinguishing between their *agmen*, while moving, and their *acies*, when drawn up. Much of the perplexity appears to have arisen from considering *principes* and *principia*, which occur in the same sentence, as synonymous; whereas it is clear that the former are to be taken for those who led the march, and that the latter word signifies the main body of an army, as contradistinguished from the wings. We are not sure that a plan was necessary to render this explanation intelligible, though it certainly makes it more complete. Still, as the Doctor truly observes, the phrase "*triplicibus subsidiis*" is a stumbling block; and the term *subsidium* must here receive a construction which, we believe, it admits in no other place, and must be taken simply for a *rank*, instead of a *supply* brought to support a rank.

If we were to enumerate only the unacknowleged errors of the press which occur in these volumes, we could entertain our readers with a very considerable list of errata: but we fear that not a few of the mistakes which crowd the work are of such a nature, that the author cannot justly be exonerated from them at the expence of the printer's accuracy. Thus, at p. 138 of the first volume, where we are favoured with a quotation of the opening lines of the second book of Lucretius, *Suave* is thrice marked as an adverb. At p. 113 of the second volume, *consilium* is twice confounded with *concilium*. Again, the misquotation of "*Ausoniumque bibat felici pectore fontem*," where *felice* is written instead of *felici*; the mistake of *civile* for *civili* under similar circumstances at p. 219; and more especially the following unmetrical verses,

"*Exul ab octavâ* bibit Marius, *et fruitur Dîs*,

at p. 195 of Vol. I. and

"*Sergestusque domus* tenuit *à quo Sergia nomen*,"

at p. 103 of the second volume; throw considerable suspicion on the extent of the Doctor's familiarity with Latin verse. These errors ought to have been the more studiously avoided because they lie near the surface, and might naturally mislead the young scholar, whose benefit the work is expected so greatly to promote.

Of the style of translation adopted in this publication, we have already said enough; and we are sorry that it is not in our power to speak in terms of high commendation of the original style in which the notes are written. *Expiscation* is barely English; *nothing less*, in the sense in which it is here used, is wholly French; and the ambiguity of this phrase (at p. 200 of the second volume) has betrayed the author into an

assertion directly contrary to his meaning. The barbarous term *relevant* is indeed now pretty generally adopted from the Scotch law: but it signifies "*applicable* to the proof of a proposition," and has no relation to the degree of *force* with which the evidence makes out the proof, in which latter sense it is constantly employed in these volumes. To *join issue* with any one is to controvert his affirmation, not to assent to it, as Dr. Steuart supposes; and though he may be excused for his ignorance of the language of Westminster-hall, such language, which is never very elegant and harmonious, ought not to be adopted except by those who thoroughly understand it. We shall select but one word more for our animadversion. Many persons have imagined that "to innovate" is a verb neuter, but Dr. Johnson states it to be a verb active. It is rather curious, indeed, that, in two out of his three quotations, it is used as a verb neuter; though we are willing to admit that the third of them, (the second in order), which is taken from Dryden, proves it to be active. The first definition, and that to which Dryden's lines apply, is "to bring in something not known before;" the second is "to change, by introducing novelties." Dr. Steuart always uses the word according to the latter definition, which is authorised in Johnson by a single passage from South, and which, we strongly incline to think, has been considered obsolete for the last century.

Dr. Steuart's notes occupy so large a proportion of these volumes, that we may perhaps be expected to make them a subject of separate observation: yet their desultory nature and multifarious contents defy all our endeavours to present a general character of them as the result of our examination; and preclude us from making any concise extracts as samples of the whole. The confidence that no one 'will complain of narrowness in the range which they have taken,' (pref. p. 7.) may, we are sure, be very reasonably indulged; and they appear to be well characterised by their author as a specimen of "literary *gossipping*." This word is properly employed to denote the habit of stating trite or unimportant facts with considerable verbosity, and endless repetitions;—the qualities necessary to make it agreeable are ease, good humour, vivacity of manner, and originality of observation.

We cannot conclude this article without assuring Dr. Steuart that, in passing these free strictures on his publication, we have performed a very painful task: but sentiments of a contrary nature we could not have expressed, consistently with the duty which we owe to our readers, or with a proper regard to the permanency of his own reputation. He certainly possesses attainments that may qualify him to throw light on

the most interesting portions of classical history, combined with an ardent partiality to the subject, and an industry of research, which have seldom failed to ensure a favorable issue to well directed exertions. When he shall lay before the public the fruits of a leisure so liberally employed, with some attention to method, arrangement, and conciseness, and with less ambition of displaying the extent of his reading, than of selecting from a vast and indiscriminate mass whatever is really important and interesting;—when, in a word, he shall prefer the praise of an *useful* English scholar, to the needless amplifications and tasteless verbosity of a German commentator;—he shall find us among the foremost to applaud the direction of his labours, and to rejoice in their merited success.

Den.n

ART. II. *The Works of Sallust:* translated into English by the late Arthur Murphy, Esq., Author of a Translation of Tacitus, &c. 8vo. pp. 436. 8s. Boards. Carpenter. 1807.

THE public attention will certainly be attracted to a translation of Sallust, by the same masterly hand which first made Tacitus perfectly intelligible and familiar to the English reader; and though the venerable author does not appear to have given the last finish to this work, nor to have designed it, in its present state, for the press, we think on the whole that no disappointment will be excited by a perusal of it. As, however, we freely stated our opinion, in 1793, that the former version was too paraphrastical, and of course wanted fidelity in representing the manner of the historian, so we must now add that this is a fault which has not been corrected in the execution of the latter task of the translator. Yet the natural good taste of Mr. Murphy has saved him from the grosser errors of obtruding his own unwarranted observations into the text, or implying a censure on his original by tedious interpolations and cumbrous ornaments; and if the energetic severity that marks the style of Sallust does not survive in the copy, his sentiments at least are in general faithfully preserved, and his facts are conveyed in an agreeable and gentleman-like English narrative.

A life of Sallust is prefixed, which appears not to be the work of Mr. Murphy, but bears the initials T.M. It follows the authority of Le Clerc too implicitly; and as we have, in the preceding article, expressed our reasons for being dissatisfied with the grounds on which Dr. Steuart has attempted to justify the Historian from some of the most current imputations against him, we feel ourselves bound in justice to declare that the present biographer ap-

pears to have been betrayed into the opposite extreme of uncharitable and indiscriminate condemnation. It is curious to see the striking contrariety of their views; and as the one has drawn an argument from the supposed incompatibility of moral debasement and intellectual superiority, the other is determined to bear away the palm of absurdity by asserting as a maxim the converse of that extravagant proposition:

'We so seldom find the talents which make men admirable, united with those qualities of the heart which render them amiable, that many have supposed such perfections to be, in some degree, incompatible; have imagined, that refinement in individuals, as well as nations, is generally purchased at the expence of purity and innocence, and that the sun of knowledge too often corrupts while it illuminates. It cannot be denied, that the union of virtue and genius is a phenomenon almost as rare as it is glorious; and amply as human nature abounds in contrarieties, it does not produce a more degrading alloy, a more melancholy mixture, than that of talents with profligacy.—Such is the mortifying spectacle which the life of Sallust presents: alternately exciting our admiration and contempt by the vigour of his intellect and the corruption of his heart, he seems to have studied all that is excellent in theory, for the sole purpose of avoiding it in practice.'

The reader will naturally expect after such an opening that all the antient scandalous stories are retailed in this life, without examination or proof; for one of the charges, indeed, (p. vi.) no foundation at all appears to have been laid: yet we must repeat in this place that, where all that is known of the character is decisively bad, and there is much reason for suspecting the rectitude of all the rest, the truth or falsehood of one or two particular accusations can make no alteration in the general effect; and the impression produced by the two opposite pieces of biography is nearly the same.

In addition to this memoir, the volume contains Catiline's Conspiracy, Cicero's four orations on that occasion, and the War against Jugurtha, with a very few explanatory notes. The two epistles to Cæsar are not translated, though the author of the life does not appear to question their genuineness. This is one proof that Mr. Murphy had not completed his intended task. A stronger presumption arises in our minds from the common-place phrases which he has sometimes condescended to employ, often resembling the figures of vulgar poetry rather than the sober language of history. Such expressions might possibly occur at first to the memory of a man much versed in theatrical compositions, and he might set them down with the view of proceeding rapidly in his work: but we are persuaded that, on revising his translation for the public eye, the good sense of Mr. Murphy would

would have expunged them all. This is in fact the only blemish in the style, and it is not of frequent occurrence.

The length, to which our general remarks have extended in reviewing the large work of Dr. Steuart, precludes the necessity of our now doing more than producing one or two short specimens of the execution. The first shall be the description of the field of battle, after the defeat of Catiline, with which the history of the conspiracy concludes:

'When the battle was ended, the fierce and obstinate spirit that animated Catiline's army, appeared manifest to view. The spot on which the soldier took his stand during the action, was covered with his body when he expired. A few, whom the prætorian cohort overpowered, were driven from their post, but they fell under honourable wounds. Catiline was found at a distance from his men, amidst heaps of slain. His breath had not quite left him: the same ferocity that distinguished him when living, was still visible in his countenance.

'It may be further observed, that in his whole army not one free citizen was taken prisoner, either during the battle, or after the defeat. Determined to give no quarter, they were prodigal of their own lives. Nor could the army of the commonwealth boast of having gained a cheap victory. They paid the price of their blood. The bravest among them were either slain in the action, or carried from the field covered with wounds. Numbers went from the camp to survey the field of battle, led either by curiosity, or in search of plunder. Employed in moving the dead bodies, they found among the slain a friend, a relative, or an intimate companion. Some discovered their particular enemies stretched on the ground. The impressions made by this melancholy scene were various: mixed emotions of joy and sorrow, regret and congratulation, prevailed throughout the army.'

The orations are perhaps rendered with as much spirit as is capable of being transfused into any representations of such originals. It is difficult to conjecture how they may affect an English reader who forms his first acquaintance with Cicero by means of them: but, in a comparative view, they must be allowed to be feeble and languid indeed!

Our second extract shall be from that passage in the Jugurthine war, in which the general character of Marius is first sketched, and allusion is made to his aspiring hopes:

'It happened in this juncture that Caius Marius, being at Utica, and performing a propitiatory sacrifice to the gods, was told by the priest who presided at the ceremony, that the omens which appeared portended all that was great and wonderful; that whatever undertaking he resolved in his mind, he might pursue with thorough reliance upon the gods, and might try his fortune to the utmost risk, as success was sure to follow him throughout. The fact was, that, long before this time, Marius had conceived hopes of obtaining the consulship: for that high honour he had every requisite, except a

line of noble ancestors. Possessed of unremitting industry, distinguished by his probity, consummate master of military affairs, and undaunted in the field of battle, he added to those public virtues the strictest domestic economy, and a mind superior to the allurements of wealth or pleasure. The love of glory was his ruling passion. He was born at Arpinum, and remained in that city during his tender years. As soon as he was capable of bearing arms, he entered into the service. The eloquence of Greece had no charms for him, and the elegant refinements of the city passed unheeded. The art of war engaged his whole attention; and, by consequence, his natural genius soon displayed itself in full vigour. His early ambition made him aspire to the office of military tribune; and though, when he became a candidate, the people did not know him even by sight, yet his character stood so high, that he succeeded by the unanimous suffrage of all the tribes. From this beginning he opened his way to further advancement, and in every station discharged his duty with so much honour, that he was always deemed worthy of a higher post.'

From this beginning, the intrigues of Marius are most acutely traced to their perfect developement, and they form a much more important and entertaining subject than the military operations in Africa. Indeed, we have frequently wondered that these two pieces have not been considered more exclusively as appertaining to the internal history of Rome, and placed accordingly in chronological order in the editions of Sallust. By means of a short connecting narrative, the Jugurthine War might be made an excellent introduction to the Conspiracy; and though this may be a matter of indifference to scholars, who must be supposed to make a point of studying every portion of the history with exactness, yet to those who are unacquainted with the language, and who read for the sake of the amusement to be drawn from the relation of events, the *effect* would be far more interesting and attractive.

Den.

Art. III. *Richmond Hill;* a descriptive and historical Poem; illustrative of the principal Objects viewed from that beautiful Eminence. Decorated with Engravings. By the Author of Indian Antiquities. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller. 1808.

THE Muses, who from time immemorial have taken up their residence on "the forked hill," seem to have inspired their votaries with a decided preference for elevated situations. They like to climb those heights, congenial to ethereal minds, from which they can look down on this nether world; and on which, while the eye traverses the expanded

expanded scene, the powers of the soul are awakened to rapturous extacy and varied reflection. Beings even of ordinary genius feel as it were allied to poetry, when taken to spots which command rich and extensive views; and the epithet which they usually employ, calling the landscape *striking*, is a proof of the justness of our observation. On real poets, they seem to produce something like inspiration; and hence, in antient and modern song, Hills have been singularly honoured by the Muse.

We need not specify the poems, in our own language, which have consecrated the fame of particular eminences: but perhaps none of those places which have been made the subject of verse is more beautiful, or more classical, than that which Mr. Maurice has now chosen to celebrate. For a descriptive and historical poem, *Richmond Hill* is indeed an attractive and prolific subject. No elevation in the empire perhaps displays so rich, so decorated, and so brilliant a landscape. It presents ideas of rural beauty the most exquisite, of taste the most cultivated, of commercial opulence, of patrician and of royal grandeur. We behold from it at once the seats of the muses, the villas of statesmen, and the palaces of kings. It excites recollections of the most interesting kind: all around is classic; and to almost every spot which is here washed by the silver Thames, some historic tale belongs. In the hand, therefore, of even common genius, we should expect some gratification from a poem intitled Richmond Hill: but from Mr. Maurice, to whose Muse we have often presented our commendation *, we anticipated much pleasure on the present occasion; and we are happy in adding that on the whole he has not disappointed us, though we must confess that we have not been fully satisfied. As a descriptive poet, and as an historian and antiquary, we have nothing to object to his execution: but, in his delineation of modern characters, he lavishes his praise with little judgment and discrimination, seeming more anxious to say that which would please than that which truly belonged to the persons eulogized. It would scarcely be delicate to enumerate all the instances to which we allude, and to the readers of the poem such a specification will be needless: but we cannot repress the general remark, calculated for the benefit of praise-bedaubing poets, that, when writers are *dealers by wholesale* in this article, it ceases to be complimentary, and reflects discredit on the object whence it proceeds, without advancing the reputation of the individuals to whom it is directed.

* See Rev. Vol. xxix. N. S. p. 419.; Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 77. and other places.

In an appropriate preface, Mr. Maurice gives a concise history of Richmond; which village was antiently called *Sheen*, or *Shene*, (as Camden tells us,) from its *shining* or splendor, and which in the time of Henry VII. received its present name. While this monarch was residing at the superb palace of *Sheen*, built by Henry V., it took fire, and was burnt to the ground: but it was soon rebuilt with greater magnificence by the victor at Bosworth field, who gave to it his own name of RICHMOND. Henry VIII. shewed it no preference: but Mr. M. infers the partiality of Charles I. to this spot, from his having made here the fine park called the New Park, eight miles in circumference, and surrounded it with a brick wall. During the civil distractions, the palace suffered considerably, and was intended for sale, the materials having been valued at 10,782l.: but, at the Restoration, Charles II. regained the possession of it, though probably in a dismantled condition; and, as he preferred the castle of Windsor, notwithstanding that this was the place of his education, Richmond became totally neglected.

'After this period, (continues Mr. M.) this deserted palace fell rapidly into decay; the greatest part of it was taken down during the last century, and the site granted on a lease to various noblemen and gentlemen. Upon that site at present stand the Duke of Queensbury's, the Countess of Northampton's, and the elegant villa, late Sir Charles Asgill's, but now belonging to Witshed Keene, Esq. What remains of the old palace consists of the range of buildings called in the survey "the Wardrobe," and is let on lease to William Robertson, Esq. and Matthew Skinner, Esq. That adjoining the ancient gateway is tenanted by David Dundas, Esq. surgeon to his Majesty; and in the garden of Mr. Skinner still exists the venerable yew-tree, of large dimensions, valued in the said survey at 10l.'

Mr. M. also gives a concise account of the antient convent of *Sheen*; the revenues of which, at the Suppression, were estimated at 777l. 12s. 6d. These monuments of the grandeur and piety of our former monarchs furnish the poet with historical materials; while the various objects, which present themselves to the view, afford him an opportunity of adverting to eminent characters of modern times.

The poem consists of two cantos, the first of which includes the scenes and objects that occur in the immediate vicinity of Richmond Hill; and the second, those which are surveyed at a distance. It must be obvious to every reader that the matter of the first canto is more immediately consonant to the subject; and that in the second the poet throws his views beyond the range of objects discernible from Richmond Hill, in order to introduce delineations of the characters of Lord Spencer, Lord Nelson, Mr. Pitt, the Bishop

Bishop of London, the Duke and late Duchess of Devonshire, Mr. Fox, and Messrs. Goldsmid and Hope.—The poem opens with considerable promise; and it displays an energy and a flow of versification not inferior to those of any of Mr. Maurice's former productions. The address to the hill contains some beautiful lines; and whoever has been on its terrace on a fine day will feel the force of the poet's metaphor, when he calls it a

'*Rich diamond, sparkling in a golden vale.*'

For the gratification of our readers, and as a specification of the powers of Mr. M.'s descriptive muse, we shall transcribe the passage:

'Loveliest of hills that rise in glory round,
With swelling domes and glittering villas crown'd;
For loftier though majestic Windsor tower,
The richer landscape's thine—the nobler bower.
Imperial seat of ancient grandeur, hail!
Rich diamond! sparkling in a golden vale,
Or vivid emerald! whose serener rays
Beam mildly forth with mitigated blaze,
And mid the splendours of an ardent sky,
With floods of verdant light refresh the eye:
Richmond! still welcome to my longing sight,
Of a long race of kings the proud delight!
Of old the sainted sage thy groves admired,
When with devotion's hallow'd transports fired,
From Sheen's monastic gloom thy brow he sought,
And on its summit paused in raptured thought,
Stretch'd to the horizon's bound his ardent gaze,
And hymn'd aloud the great Creator's praise.

'And still where'er I turn my wond'ring eyes,
The dazzling visions like enchantment rise—
Fired with yon glowing orb's solstitial beam,
The kindling hills reflect the vivid gleam;
Round their broad base, and down their verdant sides,
Full many a sparkling stream meand'ring glides,
And urging to the Thames its shining way
Flames on the view beneath the fervid ray.
Rich pastures here, and swelling lawns invite,
And all Arcadia charms the raptur'd sight;
There bounteous Ceres waves her golden stores,
There all her blooming wealth Pomona pours.
The searching beams each darksome glen illume,
And penetrate the grotto's deepest gloom;
From lofty Windsor to Augusta's fanes
One burst of song, one blaze of glory reigns;

While, wafting from la Plate's * far distant shores,
Brazilian gems, and bright Peruvian ores,
Through green savannas, and embow'ring woods,
Majestic rolls the sire of British floods!
In whose bright mirror, cloudless and serene,
The beauties of the blue expanse are seen.
'What radiant tints adorn th' enamel'd ground;
What rich Sabæan odours float around!
For on this beauteous brow, where kindly dews
And vernal gales their genial warmth diffuse,
And in the spacious vale that spreads below,
In many a fragrant garden taught to blow,
Each costlier shrub the bounteous spring bestows,
And every gorgeous flow'r that summer knows,
Cull'd from each distant clime and ransack'd shore,
Their mingled scents in rich profusion pour!'—
'Hail to thee, lovely Richmond! hail, once more,
Thy beauteous blossom'd vale and winding shore,
Raptured I plunge amid thy inmost bow'rs,
And range enamour'd all thy beds of flow'rs;
Kiss the dear earth, in youth with transport trod,
And with my bosom press the fragrant sod.'

After this animated apostrophe to the Parnassus of Britain, the author weaves into his verse the names of those poets who have preceded him in describing its beauties and those of the surrounding region, viz. *Denham*, *Pope*, *Thomson*, *Collins*, and *Gray*; and this part of the poem is executed with so much vigor and with such touches from the hand of a master, that at all events we must find a place for an extract from it;

'Rise, awful Shadows! rise immortal throng,
Burst Death's dark confines, and attest my song;
Oh! crown'd with bays that shall for ever bloom,
Amid your favour'd haunts the lyre resume;
The stream along whose beauteous banks ye rov'd,
The shrubs you planted and the bow'rs you loved,
The hallow'd grottos, where the Muse inspired,
The solemn vistas, where the soul was fired,
The welcome, well-known sounds rejoiced shall hail,
And echo waft them down the gladden'd vale.
'Rise, thou! who eldest of the tuneful quire,
In yon rich valley waked the votive lyre!
For still thy lovely Hill † its charms retains,
But brightest shines in thy delightful strains.
From its proud summit, on her soaring wings,
Through heav'n's expanse thy Muse unbounded springs;

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* Mr. M. should have said *La Plata*, or the Plate; omitting, in the former case, the expletive *far*, to accommodate the metre. *Rev.*

† See Denham's "Cooper's Hill."

On

On all beneath her beams of glory throws,
And in thy song the whole horizon glows.
' Rise, Pope! sublime in Homer's classic rage!
For all his spirit warms thy nervous page;
Nor with less fire, for *trampled* virtue bold,
Thy fervid strain of manly satire roll'd—
But who shall Windsor's bow'ry pride display,
In numbers sweet as thy mellifluous lay,
Like plaintive Eloise the passions move,
Now warm to rapture and now melt to love!
Awed by thy daring flight, th' admiring Muse,
Trembling, through Twitnam's groves her course pursues;
For who, with rival wing, shall hope to soar
Where thy bold eagle-genius tower'd before?"

We must pass over the subsequent tribute to Thomson and Collins, and shall copy a part of the delineation of Gray; to whose genius Mr. M. ascribes distinguished pre-eminence:

' Grandeur and beauty deck thy nervous lines,
And all the master in the portrait shines!
Rous'd by thy magic harp's inspiring sound,
The genius kindles and the pulses bound;
Fancy beams forth with renovated fires,
And Virtue with diviner rage aspires.'

In the lines on Sion-house, the magnificent seat of the Duke of Northumberland, the poet attempts a compliment which is forced and out of place;

' Rich marbles—breathing sculptures—all declare
With matchless taste, an ADAM *has been there.*'

By this couplet, the ignorant reader would be led to conclude that the rich marbles, &c. at Sion-house had been brought there under the direction of Mr. Adam. — " Umbrageous Ham," where GAY meditated, and Ham-house, which formerly belonged to Duke Lauderdale, and where our amorous monarch Charles II. spent many pleasureable hours, might have afforded much more matter for the poet than he has drawn from them.

The historical retrospect which introduces our antient monarchs, who built the magnificent palace and monastery of *Sheen*, occupies a considerable portion of the first canto; which terminates with an affecting tale, called the Maid of Richmond-Hill, said (and, as we believe, truly,) to be founded on fact.

As we have already observed, the second canto consists chiefly of complimentary matter; among which are elegiac lines sacred to the memory of Mr. Pitt. Here the poet exerts himself to express the high opinion which he entertained

of

of the genius, fortitude, and eloquence of this celebrated Statesman; and of his death Mr. M. says,

> ' Europe's loud voice laments her Saviour gone,
> And kings, the bulwark of their tott'ring throne.'

The poet thus apostrophises the deceased Minister:

> ' Enlighten'd STATESMAN! whose expanded soul
> Pervaded Europe to the frozen pole;—
> Her empires in thy mighty balance weigh'd,
> And propt the sinking with thy pow'rful aid;
> Whose tow'ring, bold, and comprehensive view
> *Grasp'd all Locke thought, and letter'd Bacon knew;*
> What daring pencil, what unbounded verse
> Shall the proud story of thy fame rehearse?"

This animated elegiac tribute concludes with an address to Mr. Pitt's spirit in the bright abodes of bliss, intreating him to ' guard the Empire which he *died to save.*' How far the voice of impartial history will confirm the testimony of the poet respecting the profound wisdom of Mr. Pitt's political views, we shall not here inquire: but to eulogize him as having *died for his country* is an extravagance of fiction which, as we find by a note subjoined, not even his friend the Bishop of Lincoln could tolerate.

When Mr. Maurice proceeds to include Mr. Fox in his obituary, the talents, erudition, and philanthropy of this great, clear-sighted, and amiable man are mentioned with appropriate epithets: but as a Statesman he is not exhibited; so that, in surveying this portrait, we thought of the strollers in a barn who undertook the exhibition of the play of Hamlet, omitting, *for particular reasons,* the part of Hamlet himself!

How far the Duke of Clarence, who has never had a naval command since he was a young captain, will approve Mr. Maurice's notice of him in this poem, is also a point which we shall not undertake to settle. His R. H. is introduced as

> ' Clarence, his scepter'd Sire's, his Country's pride!
> Her boast on land, *her bulwark on the tide.*'

We must now, however, take our leave of Mr. Maurice's present poetic undertaking, which cannot fail to confer credit on him as a votary of the Muses; though we do not admit such rhimes as *perfume* and *dome,* which is uniformly though erroneously pronounced by Mr. M. *doom*; *join* and *shine*; *trod* and *abode*; *palms* and *charms*; and we find in one place *bid* for *bade,* (p. 82.) Why Mr. M. should call the Wandle *neglected,* we know not: it is mentioned by Pope in his "Windsor Forest", as "the blue transparent Vandalis;" and no stream, considering its length is more occupied by human industry.

Mo-y. ART.

ART. IV. *Memoirs of the Rise and Progress of the Royal Navy.* By Charles Derrick, Esq. of the Navy Office. 4to. pp. 334. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Black and Parry, &c.

To a maritime state, its naval power and improvement must ever form an object of high moment; and though it must be most essential to discuss not only the means of sustaining, but those also of advancing, the degree of perfection to which its navy may have attained, yet it will always be curious and interesting to trace backwards the steps which have been already trodden in its progress. In most inquiries, indeed, we derive both a stimulus to new attainments and a variety of suggestions for effecting them, from contemplating the efforts of our predecessors, the ideas which led them on, and the means which in their hands were found either beneficial or abortive; and perhaps the caution, which should be learnt from failure, is scarcely less valuable than the incitement which is generally created by success.

Of the vital importance of the British Navy, in times like these, it were almost superfluous to speak, and it may therefore be equally unnecessary to apply our preceding remark to the present volume: which conveys information that will be very acceptable, on the subject to which it is devoted, with a number of facts and documents that are desirable in themselves though somewhat dry in the detail. G. 2.

Mr. Derrick observes in his preface that, if the History of the Navy were divided into two parts, the latter should commence with the reign of Henry VIII., before whose time there was, strictly speaking, no Royal Navy. It was that monarch who first established docks for the Royal Navy; previously to which, ships for the public service were (with few exceptions) supplied by the sea ports, and sometimes hired from foreigners. Henry VII., however, caused a large ship to be built at the national expence, which was named the *Great Harry*, and cost about 14000l; and he may therefore be said to have laid the foundation of a standing Naval force: but Henry VIII., besides his establishment of docks, has another claim to be regarded as the founder of the present navy. 'An Admiralty, and Navy Office, were constituted, and Commissioners appointed by him, regular salaries were settled for the Admirals, Vice-Admirals, Captains, and Seamen, and the sea service in his time became a distinct and regular profession.' The first Royal Dock was formed at Woolwich, and was called by Camden the *Mother Dock*.

The principal object of Mr. Derrick, in this publication, is 'to shew the state of the Navy, as to the number, tonnage, &c.

&c. of the several classes of the ships and vessels at different periods; when the naval force was promoted, neglected, or, at least, not augmented; and at what periods improvements in ship building were introduced into it.' He begins his Memoirs with some account of the *Great Harry* built by Henry VII., after which he enters on the succeeding reign. The principal part of the work is formed by a collection of lists of ships, and statements of the condition of the Navy, at different times; which are arranged chronologically, and thus shew the progressive increase of the British Navy. Three lists of the king's ships are collected by Mr. D. for the reign of Henry the VIIIth: one of them, which is for the year 1546 and is inserted in the Appendix, contains information of the tonnage and number of men borne in each ship, but none of the lists inserted in this reign mention the number of guns. Mr. D. has given an extract from a report which was made by commissioners appointed to inquire into the state of the Navy in 1618; in which, taking a retrospective view of it as far back as the time of Henry VIII. they say, that Monarch, 'making use of Italian shiprights, and encouraging his own people to build strong ships of war to carry great ordnance, did by that means establish a puissant Navy, which in the end of his reign consisted of 71 vessels, whereof 30 were ships of burthen, and contained in all 10550 tons: two were galleys, and the rest were small barks and row barges, from 80 tons downwards to 15 tons, which served in rivers and for landing of men.' To this extract, the author adds: 'I have seen a MS. which mentions, that in this reign an act was passed to encourage merchants to build ships for their service, fit for men of war, enacting that such ships should be exempted from certain duties, and that the owners should receive from the king, when his service called for them, twelve shillings per ton a month.'

Three lists also of the king's ships in the reign of Edward VIth are given, two of which contain the number of guns and men. The lists in this and the preceding reign are taken from *Pepys's Miscellanies*, and the *Archæologia*. 'A memorial was graciously received by King Edward VI., not long before his decease, wherein methods were proposed for increasing the number of seamen in his dominions, and for preventing the carrying on a trade here in foreign bottoms. There are notices of other projects of the like nature in his own diary, which gives reason to suppose that, if he had lived, he would have been careful of maritime affairs.' In the following reign, the Navy greatly diminished.

For "the days of good Queen Bess," several accounts of the state of the Navy are here collected: but the list of ships belonging to her Majesty, which served under the command of the Lord High Admiral in 1588 against the Spanish Armada, contains, besides the names, only the tonnage and number of men. Lediard, in his Naval History of England, has given, from a MS. in the king's library, the names of the commanders of the different ships. Mr. D. likewise in a note says: 'I have seen a MS. stating that the following ships carried the guns, as against their names expressed, at the time of the Armada.' Surely the author should have been more particular in his manner of mentioning the manuscripts which he has consulted, and from which he has given information, than merely to say that he has seen them, which is no guide for reference. In the extract introduced from the manuscript last mentioned, it appears that the Triumph, the largest ship in the English Fleet, was of 1100 tons burthen, and carried 42 guns; while the Arc Royal, of 800 tons, carried 55 guns. The number of men in the Triumph was 500; in the Arc Royal, 425.

Mr. D. has continued a series of statements of the British Naval force down to the year 1805, and has added an Appendix in which we find much curious information. No. 1. of this supplement is, 'An account of the Periods when the different Dock Yards were established.'—No. 2. 'An account of the average number of Shipwrights borne in the Dock Yards in each year of Queen Ann's War.'—No. 3. 'An Account of the number of Shipwrights in the Dock Yards on the 14th of January in each year, from 1744 to 1805 inclusive.' —In comparing the numbers in these lists, it may at first excite some surprise to find that, in the year 1710, 2574 Shipwrights were employed in the Dock Yards, and in the year 1805 not more than 3193; an increase which bears a very small proportion to the augmentation of the Naval force, but which affords a proof of the great improvements in workmanship, in machinery, and in the construction of vessels. Besides the superior neatness in contrivance and execution, which practice and experience always produce, the quantity of unnecessary work in the construction of ships has been continually diminishing to the present day. The account of a ship named the *Sovereign of the Sea*, built in 1637, and the largest which up to that time had ever been accomplished in England, exhibits a curious instance of the quantity of labour then bestowed on mere ornament. It is thus described in a publication of that time by Thomas Heywood:

'This

'This famous vessel was built at Woolwich, in 1637.—She was in length by the keel 128 feet or thereabout, within some few inches; her main breadth 48 feet; in length, from the fore-end of the beak-head to the after end of the stern, *à prora ad puppim*, 232 feet; and in height; from the bottom of her keel to the top of her lanthorn, 76 feet: bore five lanthorns, the biggest of which would hold ten persons upright; had three flush decks, a forecastle, half-deck, quarter-deck, and round-house.—

Her lower tier had . . 30 ports for Cannon and Demi-Cannon,
Middle tier. . . . . 30 for Culverines and Demi ditto,
Third tier . . . . . 26 for other Ordnance,
Forecastle 12,

and two half-decks have 13 or 14 ports more within-board, for murdering pieces, besides 10 pieces of chace-ordnance forward and 10 right aft, and many loop-holes in the cabins for musquet-shot.—She had eleven anchors, one of 4400 pounds weight.—She was of the burthen of 1637 tons. She was built by Peter Pett, Esq. under the direction of his father, Captain Phineas Pett *, one of the Principal Officers of the Navy. She hath two galleries besides, and all of most curious carved work, and all the sides of the Ship carved with trophies of artillery and types of honour, as well belonging to sea as land, with symbols appertaining to navigation; also their two sacred majesties badges of honour; arms with several angels holding their letters in compartments, all which works are gilded over, and no other colour but gold and black.—One tree, or oak, made four of the principal beams, which was 44 feet, of strong serviceable timber in length, 3 feet diameter at the top, and 10 feet at the stub or bottom.

"Upon the stem head a Cupid, or Child bridling a Lion; upon the bulk-head, right forward, stand six statues, in sundry postures; these figures represent Concilium, Cura, Conamen, Vis, Virtus, Victoria. - Upon the hamers of the water are four figures, Jupiter, Mars, Neptune, Eolus; on the stern, Victory, in the midst of a frontispiece; upon the beak-head siteth King Edgar on horseback, trampling on seven kings."

From some imperfection in the shape and dimensions of the frame, this ship carried guns of unequal calibres on the same deck: while the dimensions seem to have been quaintly contrived that the tonnage might correspond with the year in which she was built. The expensive decorations of this vessel,

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'* Mr. Pett says of himself; "During my attendance at Court, in 1604, as his Grace's (the Prince of Wales's) Captain of his Ship," &c. alluding to the small Vessel he had built in 1604 for the Prince to amuse himself in above London-Bridge, and to make himself acquainted with Shipping; which vessel Mr. Pett brought to Lambeth from Chatham, on 18th March, and a few days after was sworn one of the Prince's Servants.—Probably this occasioned him to go to sea two or three times in the Prince's own Ship, the Prince Royal, as we find by his own account he did.'

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it is said, increased the complaints against ship-money in that reign.

Mr. Derrick's Appendix affords a variety of other particulars respecting the building and equipment of ships of the Royal Navy at different periods. Table XXIII. is 'An Account shewing the Dimensions established, or proposed to be established, at different times, for building of ships.' It shews the length, breadth, and depth, with the burthen in tons, established for the various classes of ships of the Navy at several times, from the year 1677 to 1745. In 1677, the established tonnage for a ship of 100 guns was 1550 tons: but in 1745, the dimensions had been increased, and 2000 tons became the established burthen for such a ship; and in 1789, for the same number of guns, the burthen allowed was 2220 tons.

The building and management of ships have been advancing for some centuries in a continual course of improvement; and it is reasonable to believe that they are yet considerably distant from the perfection to which they will arrive: though vanity, on every new discovery, is apt to exclaim, 'this is complete.' The following passage from Sir Walter Raleigh's discourse on the Invention of Shipping is historical of the progress in his days:

'In my own time, the shape of our English Ships hath been greatly bettered.—It is not long since the striking of the topmast hath been devised.—Together with the Chain-pump, we have lately added the Bonnet and Drabler *.—To the Courses we have devised Studding Sails, Top-gallant-Sails, Sprit-sails and Top-sails.—The weighing of Anchors by the Capstan is also new. We have fallen into consideration of the length of cables †, and by it we resist the malice of the greatest winds that can blow.—We have also raised our second Decks.'

No. 24. of the Appendix is an Estimate of the Expences of building and of the different parts of the Equipment, in the year 1789, for ships of all rates.

Having given our readers some information of the principal matters contained in Mr. Derrick's *Memoirs of the Rise and Progress of the British Navy*, which forms a kind of History of Modern Ship Building, we shall add that we regard it as an useful publication; being of opinion that collections of facts, on this important branch of maritime science, tend much to its advancement. It is proper, however, in acknowleging the

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'* The Bonnet and Drabler were Sails.'

'† The Cables before this are said to have been only 78 fathoms long.'

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merit of Mr. D.'s labour, to mention that in our opinion the price of his volume is liable to objection; and that some of the tables are printed in too open a manner, especially those in which the reader is obliged to turn over a leaf for the continuation, when the whole table might conveniently have been contained either in one page, or in two pages opposed to each other: for it greatly assists the attainment of a clear and comprehensive knowlege of a subject, to have the whole exhibited at one view.

Capt. B.-y.

ART. V. *The Rise, Fall, and future Restoration of the Jews.* To which are annexed, Six Sermons, addressed to the Seed of Abraham by several evangelical Ministers. Concluding with an elaborate Discourse, by the late Dr. Hunter, entitled, "The Fullness of the Gentiles coeval with the Salvation of the Jews." 8vo. pp. 260. 5s. Boards. Button.

FOR the warm interest which some Christians take in the dispersed state of the Jews, and for the zealous efforts which they display for the conversion of these unbelievers to the faith of Christ, none of the present descendants of Abraham appear to feel the smallest gratitude. Our mode of addressing them excites not their attention; and publications of the nature of that which is now before us, as far as they respect the Jews, are of little more value than mere waste paper. Is it pride in them, or is it ignorance in us as to the real ground of their objection to the gospel, that produces this effect? They who wish sincerely to meet them in fair argument should endeavour to become acquainted with the reasons which the Jews allege for rejecting christianity, and for adhering to their antient faith; and had these *evangelical* ministers pursued this course, they would, in their sermons professedly addressed to this people, have introduced other matters of discussion than those which now occur. For the purpose of ingratiating themselves in the good opinion of the Jews, it is artfully endeavoured in the preliminary dissertation to remove from their ancestors the reproach of *spoiling* the Egyptians, by alleging that, 'as the Hebrews' due wages had been denied them, God, the supreme judge and proprietor of all, ordered them to ask a vast deal of precious things from the Egyptians, and carry them off:' but, unfortunately for this well-intended apology, the fact of the denial of wages by the Egyptians does not appear in the history. The writer might wish, also, to compliment the fortitude of the Jews in resisting persecution, by giving the air of authentic narrative to the apocryphal story of the seven brethren; by lamenting

lamenting the real hardships which this singular people have suffered in different countries; and by stating their present number at 3,000,000, of which one million are said to reside in the Turkish empire; 300,000 in Persia, China, India on the east and west of the Ganges, or Tartary; and 1,700,000 in the west of Europe, in Africa, and America.

We apprehend, however, that no apology for or flattering representation of them, as a people, will dispose the Jews to enter into the kind of argument with which they are presented in these discourses. They are told in one sermon that, 'without the shedding of blood, there is no remission,' and that, consistently with their own records, they must acknowlege the necessity of a vicarious sacrifice: but will this passage, which is so often quoted from the epistle to the Hebrews, satisfy the Jews, who will point to Numbers xxxi. 50. where other things besides blood are mentioned as offerings for making atonement for the soul? When, moreover, in another sermon, they are informed that 'the true Messiah shall take the place of the guilty,'—that their Messiah, as a temporal deliverer, 'had no *redundant merit* to impart to others,'—and that '*Holiness*, which is the immense *beauty of the Godhead*,' required mercy to be displayed to sinners in *a holy manner*, by the substitution of a victim of immense dignity and value,—could the preacher expect that an unconverted Hebrew would listen to such *evangelical* theology? Do we read, either in the Old or the New Testament, of *redundant merit?* When an infinitely perfect Being acts in a perfect manner, does he display any redundant merit? If Holiness be synonymous with Justice or Rectitude, can it permit the actual substitution of innocence for guilt? Would not the Jew, if he were acquainted with the N. T., quote Matthew viii. 17. to prove that, when Christ is said to suffer for sinners, and to bear their infirmities, the Apostles never meant to convey the idea of his being placed in the situation of the sick and the sinful? We must despair of bringing the Jews to listen to Christianity, when such doctrines are stated as forming its prominent features. Indeed, by the account given in the concluding discourse by the late Dr. Hunter, we are justified in expressing our surprise at the publication of these discourses; for that preacher expressly declares that 'the attempts which have been made for the conversion of the Jews, both by preaching and writing, are premature; that all scripture seems to remove that desirable event to a very great distance; and that no providential appearances support the expectation of a speedy change in the mind of that people.' Dr. Hunter does not adopt the opinion of Dr. Priestley

and Mr. Faber, who have ventured to predict that the restoration of the Jews and the conversion of the Gentiles were events which would occur before the termination of the present century; and surely, when we consider the slow march of truth, we must think that Dr. Hunter has most reason on his side. 'Melancholy (says he) and mortifying calculations have been made to shew the limited progress and extension of Christianity. The human race has been; by some, divided into thirty parts, of which five only, they allege, are professed Christians; six are Mahometans, and no less than nineteen are Idolators. If this be any thing like the truth, O how far is "the fulness of the Gentiles" from being come in; and, consequently, how remote is the salvation of all Israel!' Dr. H., however, regards the prophecies as pointing to the actual return of the Jews at a future period to their own land; and he confesses himself indebted for a considerable part of the proofs and illustrations which his sermon contains, to Dr. Whitby's Appendix to Chapter XI. of the Epistle to the Romans.

The preliminary dissertation, intitled 'the Rise, Fall, and future Restoration of the Jews,' is more interesting than the sermons which we have thus briefly noticed. It is divided into six chapters, including a general history of the Jews,—a particular account of their state at the birth of Christ,—a narrative of their sufferings and of the changes which they have experienced in England,—facts and anecdotes relative to their present condition in France and Germany,—a statement of the sentiments and sects of modern Jews,—and the views of eminent divines respecting their future conversion to Christ and restoration to their own land.

Perhaps, the following remarks will account for the changes which the character of the Jews has sustained. Man is the creature of circumstances, and he is moulded by the laws and institutions to which he is subject. If he be denied the rights of a citizen, his exertions must be confined within circumscribed channels. When the Jews enjoyed all the privileges of a nation, they were agricultural: but, when they became dispersed, and in consequence were unprotected by laws, their attention was restricted to the acquisition of that kind of property which was most capable of concealment and removal. If at times we censure, we should also commiserate them, and admit that the nations of the world have not assisted them in the cultivation of social virtue:

'No nation (says the writer) was ever so much attached to agriculture as the Jews in Palestine: it was only for a short period that they

they engaged in commerce, when Solomon sent his ships from Asiongaber [Ezion-geber] to Ophir. Since their dispersion no people were ever so averse from agriculture, because they were every where denied the privilege of acquiring and cultivating land, or exercising arts and trades. Commerce was therefore the only road left open to them, especially retail-trade, which is within the reach of every one, and which, offering only small and precarious profits, produces a rapacious disposition. But the riches which the Jews acquired by commerce soon awakened the cupidity of their enemies, who plundered and banished, hanged or burnt them; and to fill up the measure of their sufferings, even pretended to justify themselves by calumniating the victims of their crimes. The dread of tyranny suggested to the Jews the invention of bills of exchange and insurance; and they often eluded the violence and rapacity of their enemies by being enabled to transfer and transport their property in a letter or a pocket-book; and thus they and the Armenians became the brokers and bankers of the world.

'The character of the Jews is the effect of their education; like that of the Negroes, the Parias, the Gypsies, and, in a word, of all men.

'Instead of requiring so much of men whom we have almost forced to become vicious, is there not, on the contrary, reason to be surprised that among the Jews we still meet with so many persons who, surmounting by their courage all the obstacles which persecution and public opinion oppose to them, have acquired virtues and learning. Freind assures us, in his History of Medicine, that in the middle ages they were at the head of that profession. Medicine has indeed at all times, and in every country, been cultivated among them; and at present they may boast of many eminent physicians. It is to the Jews of Toledo we are indebted for the Alphonsine Tables, drawn up in the thirteenth century, and the finest monument of astronomy during that age of darkness. If we consult the Dictionaries of Bartoloci, Imbonati, Rossi, &c. we shall find a crowd of distinguished men among the Hebrews, whose names are transmitted with eclat to posterity:—Maimonides, Kimki, Jarchi, Aben Ezra, Juda Levi, Elias the Levite, Abarbanel the Republican, Zacutus, Orodio, Menasseh Ben-Israel, Mendez, author of a tragedy intitled Athalia, Mendelsohn, Pinto, Marcou, Hers, Bloch, Vezelize, &c.

'Virtues and talents generally follow in the train of liberty; and this is the reason why the Jewish communities in Holland have produced so many enlightened men.'

A more enlarged policy seems to be extending to this people, and by this measure they are likely to become good members of society. The advantages which they enjoy in France are considerable; and many learned men have there arisen among them. In Germany, it is stated, science is rapidly advancing among the Jews; which is more likely to demolish their ridiculous superstitions, and their absurd attachment to the reveries and "old wives' fables" of the Talmud, than any

other means. The most happy effects, we are told, are expected to result from the schools established for the Jews; and the author, after having adverted to some degrading and injurious restrictions to which this people are still subject on some parts of the continent, and their unwearied endeavours to be admitted to the full participation of civil rights, liberally expresses a hope that the time is not far distant when civil toleration will invite them to enjoy the rights and to fulfil the duties of citizens. Perhaps the Jews, if they were consulted in the affair, would prefer to be invested like other subjects with the full privileges of citizens in the rich and fertile countries of Europe, than to be sent back to the barren plains of Palestine. Indeed, if the ten tribes are still in existence, and are to be added to the three millions above mentioned, Palestine would not be able to support them, even if it recovered its pristine fertility. Of this fact we are certain, that the Jews will not be disposed to offer warm acknowlegements to those Christians who manifest a vehement solicitude for their future restoration to their ancient land, but are unwilling to allow them the privileges of a nation in any other region than Palestine.

Mo-y.

ART. VI. *Transactions of the Parisian Sanhedrim*, or Acts of the Assembly of Israelitish Deputies of France and Italy, convoked at Paris by an Imperial and Royal Decree, dated May 30, 1806. Translated from the Original published by M. Diogene Tama, with a Preface and illustrative Notes by F. D. Kirwan, Esq. 8vo. pp. 334. 8s. Boards. Taylor, Hatton Garden. 1807.

SOME years ago, a publication of this nature would have excited general attention, and the circumstance to which it relates would have been regarded by the whole christian world as a most wonderful phænomenon: but we have been accustomed to such a series of changes and alterations, since the French Revolution, following each other in rapid succession, that nothing seems to surprize us, and very striking events are passed over with as little reflection as the most trivial incidents. With the political, also the religious and moral state of Europe appears to be revolutionizing; and a new impulse will probably be imparted to the social principles and feelings of mankind. Religious intolerance will in time be discarded by governments as incompatible with sound legislation; and as the Emperors of Rome conferred "the freedom of the city on all the Gods of mankind," so christian princes will be convinced of the policy of extending the full privileges

privileges of citizenship to all of every religion, who can give proper security to the state for the maintenance of public order and social morality. The chief magistrate will find his interest promoted, and the energies of his empire increased, not by making himself the head of a sect, but by extending his protection to every system of religion and form of worship, by which his subjects are trained to habits of piety, virtue, and subordination; and he will be pleased with reflecting that, though different churches vary from each other in their creeds and ceremonials, they are all animated by a common principle of loyalty, and all blend with their devotions fervent prayers for his happiness and the prosperity of his government.

We see in that singular character, who by a series of brilliant victories has placed himself on the throne of France, and even on that of the continent of Europe, an extent of political wisdom not less remarkable than his military talents; and while we reprobate his insatiable ambition, his cruelties, and his enormities, we must ascribe to him the genius of a profound statesman, and acknowlege that he is alive to the true secret of uniting and consolidating the heterogeneous particles of a vast empire. *Fas est et ab hoste doceri*; and if we can learn any thing even from our most inveterate enemy, let us not despise the lesson. He has set an example respecting the conduct of government towards the different religions of an empire, which merits no common praise. Actuated by the deepest policy, he affects a system of unprecedented liberality, by spreading the protecting ægis of the state alike over persons of every sect; including under its vast circumference even the Jewish people, so long and so unfeelingly proscribed in all the countries of Europe, and admitting them to a full participation of civil privileges with the rest of his numerous subjects. This feature of his policy ought not to be slightly passed over: but, if we love our country, we should appreciate its value, and calculate its effects. We are steering indeed a different course: but are we or is our enemy guided by the chart and compass of political sagacity? A striking contrast is presented by Great Britain and France on the treatment of religion by the state. While in this island, celebrated and justly celebrated for the part which it has acted in the dissemination of the principles of civil and religious liberty, one denomination of christians is averse from the admission of another to a joint participation of civil rights, the new government of France is inviting the long degraded House of Israel to participate with the followers of Christ in the most complete enjoyment of political privileges. This

offer is something more than a mere compliment. Measures are concerted and a plan is formed to give respectability to the Jews, to establish their worship, and to make their incorporation with the French Empire permanent and advantageous. An assembly of Israelitish deputies from the several departments of France and Italy is convened; and a number of questions are proposed, and answers are required, that from these answers the public with whom they are about to be amalgamated might learn, whether any feature existed in the institution or religion of Moses which was adverse to the perfect organization of the social state, and which of course ought to prevent its professors from being enrolled in the list of French citizens. These questions do not refer to such dogmas of religion as are of a speculative nature, but merely concern regulations that affect the condition of man in society. The Jews are desired to explain their principles respecting Marriage, Divorce, Patriotism, and civil obedience; to declare in what light they consider Frenchmen who are not of their cast; what kind of Police-jurisdiction the Rabbis have among them; what are their notions of Usury; and whether there be any professions by which they are excluded by their law?

To these queries, very explicit and satisfactory replies are returned. The Jews, indeed, admit the propriety of this species of state-interference with religion: they acknowlege that, in order 'to prevent danger, reason and the great law of public interest require that each established religion should give to the sovereign a responsible pledge, and the means of super-inspection;' and this pledge they very willingly tender, assuring the Government 'that their religion makes it their duty to consider the law of the prince as the supreme law in civil and political matters.' The hatred and malignity of Christians towards the Israelitish nation have prevented them from doing justice to the simple and unoffending system which this people have uniformly professed, and which is nothing more than *pure Theism with a ceremonial.* It is the national religion from which the Gospel emanated, and the records of which form the basis of its evidence. We need not, therefore, remark that nothing can be found in Judaism which precludes its most ample toleration:

'A Pagan having consulted the Rabbi Hillel on the Jewish religion, and wishing to know in a few words in what it consisted, Hillel thus answered him: "Do not to others what thou shouldst not like to have done to thyself. This," said he, "is all our religion; the rest are only consequences of this principle."

'A religion whose fundamental maxims are such—a religion which makes

makes a duty of loving the stranger—which enforces the practice of social virtues,—must surely require that its followers should consider their fellow-citizens as brethren.'

From attending, however, to the curious discussion of the Parisian Sanhedrim, it will be seen that by the refusal of toleration to the Jews, and by the unjust and cruel conduct of nations to them since their dispersion, their character underwent a total change, and became entirely different from that into which it was the object of their great legislator to mould them.

In the answers to the interrogatories respecting Usury, it appears by the admission of the Jews themselves that it was 'the intention of Moses to make his people a nation of husbandmen. For a long time after him, and though Idumea was at no great distance from the sea shores inhabited by the Tyrians, the Sidonians, and other nations possessing shipping and commerce, we do not see the Hebrews much addicted to trade: all the regulations of their lawgiver seemed designed to divert their attention from commerce.' Yet, in spite of this tendency of their law, the barbarous policy hitherto pursued by christian states induced them to reject agricultural labour, and to confine themselves to barter.

To the question, 'Are there professions which the law of the Jews forbids them from exercising?' the answer is 'there are none: on the contrary, the Talmud expressly declares that "the father who does not teach a profession to his child, rears him up to be a villain."—With such a principle, had they been treated with political justice they must have proved useful citizens.

No people can be more grateful nor more extravagant in their expression of thanks for this their civil regeneration, (or *redemption* as they call it,) than are the Jews of France and Italy on the present occasion. They call France 'a second promised land;' and as for Bonaparte, he is complimented as never mortal was before either by Jew or Gentile. He is called the hero which Providence has sent in mercy to regenerate France,—a second Solomon,—the conqueror of the world and the model of Sovereigns,—the mortal according to God's own heart,—the living image of the Divinity, &c. In one place, indeed, their adulation to the French Emperor borders on absolute profaneness; and on a profaneness which we should have supposed the Jews, of all other people, would have been least disposed to commit, even in the paroxysms of their joy. When they appointed a solemn festival to celebrate his birth-day, they inform us that in their temple 'the name of Jehovah, the cyphers and arms of *Napoleon* and of *Josephine*,

shone on every side.' One of the sermons, on Prov. xxiv. 21, preached to the Israelitish deputies on this occasion, thus commences:

"Scarcely were my eye-lids opened to the dawn of this day, when my mind was assailed by the crouded images of the victories of Montenotte, of the laurels of Marengo blended with palms, of the atchievements and triumphs of Austerlitz. It is not then a vain illusion, did I exclaim! A supernatural genius has really appeared on earth, surrounded with greatness and with glory infinite. *I saw in the night visions, and behold* one *like the son of man came, and there was given him dominion, and glory, and a kingdom.* Daniel, chap. vii. verses 13 and 14.

"Already this day of joy and of universal festivity arises in renewed splendour, marked in indelible characters by predominant stars; pure and serene above all days; day for ever blessed, in which Heaven sent unto the earth the great NAPOLEON enthroned in glory, the restorer of piety, of justice, of good order, the father of nations, the friend, yea, the sincere friend, of peace; the only title dear to his heart, and the most grateful to his subjects."

The odes and hymns annexed are in the same high flown Eastern strain. M. Baruch Cerf-Berr, one of the Deputies, speaks more to the point in his reflections, and explains the object of the French Ruler:

"Catholics and Lutherans, Jews and Calvinists, are considered by His Majesty as children of the same father: he leaves to the Supreme Being the right of calling them to account for their opinions; they enjoy in safety the same rights and protection, and share equally his paternal attention; His Majesty acknowledges no difference among them, except that which results from virtue and from talents."

M. Furtado, the president, in his address to the Synagogues of Europe for convoking the Great Sanhedrim, more particularly adverts to the happy consequences likely to result to the Jews from the new order of things:

"Since our dispersion, numberless changes have manifested the vicissitudes of human affairs: nations have been successfully overwhelmed by nations, and all have been afterwards mingled and heaped on each other; we alone have withstood the torrent of ages and of revolutions.

"Every thing seemed to announce for us, in Europe, a happier state, and a less precarious existence. But it was only a distant though cheering prospect: to see those hopes realized, it was necessary that, from the midst of public tempests, from the tumultuous fluctuations of an immense people, one of those powerful men, round whom nations rally from an instinct of self-preservation, should, conducted by Providence, raise his head above the roaring elements.

"This benevolent and protecting genius wishes to do away every humiliating distinction between us and his other subjects. His piercing

piercing eye has discovered, in our Mosaic code, those principles of strength and of stability by which it has stood the test of ages, and which formerly gave our fathers that patriarchal simplicity, still an object of veneration in present times, and that heroical character so glowingly pourtrayed in our history.

"In his wisdom he has thought it consonant to his paternal views to allow the convocation of a GREAT SANHEDRIM in Paris. The functions of this body, and the objects it is to have in view, are clearly laid down in the eloquent discourse delivered by the Commissioners of His Imperial and Royal Majesty. We send it to you, dear Brethren, that you may yourselves judge of the spirit in which it is written, and see that the sole object in view is to bring us back to the practice of our ancient virtues, and to preserve our holy religion in all its purity."

The plan which establishes the regulations of religious worship among the Jews of France and Italy, and its internal police, manifest the contrivance of Bonaparte in forming the Jewish people, whom he has adopted, according to his military system. To the reflecting reader, indeed, this volume will present a wide field for speculation; and the satisfaction which the Jews express at their emancipation must be gratifying to all liberal men, who, from this event, may fairly augur the improved condition and social morality of that long despised and persecuted race.

Mo-y.

ART. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Essex.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

THIS is the first County Report which has swelled into two volumes, and the circumstance of its having passed through several hands before it reached the public eye will in some measure account for its unusual bulk. The ingenious Secretary informs us that the county of Essex was originally surveyed by Messrs. Greggs; that Mr. Vancouver was next employed to form a new report of it, which extended to a great length; that their two reports were afterward submitted to the late Rev. Mr. Howlett, in order that he might form a new one on the modern arrangement recommended by the Board; that this gentleman made large additions, but that the Committee, for reasons which are not stated, having declined to direct the printing of Mr. H.'s work, a new survey was ordered, the execution of which fell, unsought, into his own hands. It is far from being with us a matter of regret that on Mr. Young has devolved the final arrangement and exhibition of the materials for an agricultural history of Essex. In addition to his extensive experience and unwearied spirit of research,

research, he appears to us to entertain clear ideas on the business of County-Report making. Always remembering that these district-surveys are intended to furnish matter for a General Report on the internal state of the Kingdom, Mr. Young has endeavoured to keep *himself* as much out of sight as was possible, and to introduce the Essex farmer to the notice of the reader; who is properly apprized not to look into these volumes for amusement, but to expect from the bulk of their contents little more than tables of information, or details, which will be pronounced dull by all who are not seeking knowlege on the subjects to which they relate:

'Such readers, (says the Secretary in the conclusion of his Introduction,) as are apt to think that there is little use in collecting insulated, and perhaps apparently contradictory facts, will not be pleased in reading many of the pages of this, or of my other Reports; but such should in candour reflect on that great object of the Board, to collect hereafter the intelligence scattered throughout the whole into one focus; a general result: and in the work to be executed with that view, the discordant facts will be compared, and reduced to a systematic order. Circumstances which, in any Report, may appear anomalous at present, may then be reduced to known principles; and in the execution of such future work, the person, or persons, to whose care that important object may be entrusted, will not, I conceive, regret the number of the facts collected; but will, on the contrary, perhaps have reason, on many subjects, to lament that the materials are not sufficiently varied to furnish the solution of all difficulties. It is not by curtailing facts, that such future Work can be rendered great and useful. The cases, at present insulated and undigested, when contrasted, compared, or combined with others equally distinct, and apparently unimportant, will reflect a mutual light, and produce an effect which will be found nearly, perhaps wholly wanting, on subjects where the previous collection has been sparingly made by the Reporters, because unable themselves to deduce material conclusions.'

Though the several notices of agricultural practice given by Essex farmers may be very useful, and though it be proper to register them in a work of this kind, it will not be required of us, in making our report of the present volumes, to descend to these minutiæ; and we shall consider our duty as discharged by adverting to those particulars which form the prominent features of the Survey.

As the first information in all the Reports is known to relate to the *Geographical State and Circumstances*, we shall here begin, as on former occasions, with extracting the account which is furnished by this work respecting the *situation*, *extent*, *divisions*, *climate*, and *soil* of the county of Essex.

'This

" This county is one of the eastern maritime counties. It is bounded on the east by the German Ocean; on the west by the rivers, Lea and Stort, with a part of Hertfordshire; on the north by the river Stour, and part of Cambridgeshire; and on the south by the river Thames. Its situation is between 51° 30′, and 52° 15′ north latitude, and from London, about 1° 20′ east longitude. Its extent, from east to west, is about 60 miles; from north to south, 50; its outline or boundaries, about 120 miles; containing nearly one million and two hundred and forty thousand acres *."

' Mr. Neele, map-engraver to the Board, from measuring the new map of the Board of Ordnance, makes it about 942,720 acres. The table annexed to the returns of poor-rates, in consequence of the act of the 43d of the King, makes it 976,000 acres.

" The divisions of this county may be considered as two-fold, natural and artificial. Its natural divisions are divided into continent and islands. Its continent comprehends by far the major part. Its islands are numerous, but not extensive; they lie bordering, partly on the German Ocean, and partly on the river Thames. The first and the most valuable, to the south-east, is the island of Mersea, eight or ten miles south of Colchester, between the mouths of the rivers Colne and Blackwater; a rich and fertile spot, about five miles from east to west, and two from north to south. The islands, towards the south, in the hundred of Rochford, are, Foulness, Wallasea, Potten, Havengore, and New England, contiguous to each other; bounded to the north by the Crouch river; to the east and south east by the German Ocean; and to the west, by the continental part of the hundred of Rochford; and are about four or five miles from Rochford town. The remaining island, going towards the south-west, is Canvey Isle, surrounded by branches of the river Thames, and situated nearly at its mouth.

" The artificial divisions of the county are, hundreds, towns, parishes, and hamlets. There are fourteen hundreds, and five smaller districts, called half-hundreds, containing, in all, 403 parishes, and 24 market-towns †."

" The climate of this county, in the common and popular sense of the word, is mild; its northerly and easterly winds, however, in the northern and eastern quarters, especially during the spring months, when they most prevail, are pernicious, both to the animal and vegetable creation; bringing to the latter destructive blights; to the former, the human species particularly, colds and hoarseness. Part of the eastern and southern limits, for ten or twelve miles from the sea and the river Thames, in the hundreds of Thurstable, Dengey, Rochford, Barnstable, and Chaffers, are not a little subject, during the autumnal months, to thick and stinking fogs, which are often productive of quartan agues; and a person can hardly pass through these hundreds, without being struck with a proof of it in the sallow sickly faces of the inhabitants, and the prominent bellies of the children. The draining of marshes, and the highly improved cultivation of the lands, however, it must be acknowleged, have al-

' * Howlett.'

' † Ibid.'

ready

ready greatly abated these evils, and probable hopes perhaps may be indulged, that in time it will be as salubrious as the rest of the county, which by no means deserves the imputation of unhealthiness, but may safely stand a comparison with any other part of the kingdom *."

'The region of agues in Essex, I am sorry to say, is pretty extensive. That they should abound in the vicinity of marshes, is not surprising; but I was hurt to find, that the most elevated situations, in what are called *the hundreds*, are not exempt from them. The highest land for many miles is Landon-hill; and a clergyman going there to do the duty of the Sabbath, complimented the clerk on the healthy situation he lived in. In reply, he was assured of the contrary, and that the inhabitants thought themselves more plagued with *cold chills* (the provincial term for the *maladie du païs*), than they were in the vales. Those hills attract the vapours in the lower regions of the air, and render the inhabitants unhealthy.

'With regard to soil, every species of loam, as Messrs. Gregge have justly observed, from the most stubborn to the mildest, is to be found; nor is the county without a portion of light gravelly land, or a good share of meadow and marsh ground, the major part of which, with management adapted to its different qualities, is very productive.

'I divide it into eight districts.

'I. The crop and fallow district of strong loam, including the Roodings.

'II. The maritime district of fertile loam.

'III. IV. & V. Three districts of strong loam, not peculiar in management.

'VI. The turnip land district.

'VII. The chalk district.

'VIII. The district of miscellaneous loams.'

According to the parliamentary returns, the population of the county is 226,638; and though Mr. Howlett suspected the enumeration to be incomplete, he offered it as his opinion that the utmost correctness in the late survey would not have raised the total amount to above 230,000.

The amount of the Poor Rates on a medium of three years (1783,84, and 85) was 103,255l. 5s. 10d. In 1797, the aggregate amount was 200,000l. In 1799 and 1800, on account of the dearness of provisions, they were more than doubled throughout the county, and could not have been less than 500,000l. In 1801, Mr. Howlett conjectured that they would be reduced to between 300,000l. and 400,000l.

We are presented with the following information (derived from Mr. Howlett) in the section on *Estates and their management*:

"If by estates, are meant possessions in landed property, they are, in this county, in point of size and extent, almost infinitely various:

'* Howlett.'

from

from one, five, and ten pounds a year, to ten, and even twenty, thousand; and, although there may be a few considerable and extensive estates in the hands of the nobility, or of some very wealthy private individuals, yet, perhaps, there never was a greater proportion of small and moderate-sized farms, the property of mere farmers, who retain them in their own immediate occupation, than at present. Such has been the flourishing state of agriculture for twenty or thirty years past, that scarcely an estate is sold, if divided into lots of forty or fifty to two or three hundred a year, but is purchased by farmers, who can certainly afford to give for them more than almost any other persons, as they turn them to the highest advantage by their own cultivation; and hence arises a fair prospect of landed property gradually returning to a situation of similar possession to what it was a hundred, or a hundred and fifty, years ago, when our inferior gentry resided upon their estates in the country, and, by their generous hospitality, diffused comfort and cheerfulness around them. Nor let us envy and grudge the farmers this prosperity: by their laborious and spirited exertions, they highly deserve it. Nor, indeed, after all their toils, are their acquisitions of wealth comparable to those in other situations and departments of society."

The only *Mansions* which are distinctly specified as deserving of notice are *Wanstead House*, the property of Miss Tylney Long, (occupied at present by the Prince of Condé,)—*Audley-End*, Lord Braybrook's,—*Mistley-hall*, formerly the residence of Mr. Rigby,—*Gosfield*, the Marquis of Buckingham's, which displays the taste of the late Earl Nugent, and which has ~~lately~~ recently received under its roof the illustrious stranger who has assumed the title of the Count *de Lisle*,—and *Thorndon*, the seat of Lord Petre. In the vicinity of the capital, many comfortable residences are to be seen: but in large portions of the county a striking dearth of the seats of gentlemen is to be remarked.

'There is not one in the whole hundred of Dengey, which would come into contemplation on these ideas. There are but two acting magistrates in the hundred, and they both reside in the town of Maldon. In Rochford and Tendring hundreds, and, indeed, in all the district that goes by the name of *the hundreds*, they are extremely scarce. The reputation of unhealthiness accounts for this circumstance; yet there can be no doubt, that an improved drainage and cultivation, with clearing the ground of superfluous wood, has added to the health of the inhabitants. These changes are all in progression, and will gradually remove the cause of the neglect complained of.

'Some other parts of the county are but thinly inhabited by gentlemen, though far removed from the suspicion of agues. Mr. Bramston observed, that going north from Skreens, twelve miles as the crow flies to Lord Maynard's, there is not the trace of a gentleman's house; yet there are parts of the country that offer fine scenes of woodland landscape, with vales and brooks, admitting every sort of decoration.'

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The building of Cottages is represented to be the best means of remedying the evil of the high price of wages; and the result of the exertions of a cottager is displayed, to prove the beneficial consequences which flow from encouraging the poor to labour for themselves.

Though Essex has long been famous for containing some of the largest farms in the kingdom, especially in the district of *the hundreds*, where the rental of individual farms is from 1000l. to 2000l. per annum, yet on a general view of the county their size is very moderate; and the author is of opinion that, of farms of the better sort, a pretty general size is from one hundred acres to three hundred. Both Mr. Howlett and Mr. Young bear an honourable testimony to the character of the higher class of Essex farmers. The latter informs us that, in the whole course of his inquiries, he met with only two flat refusals; and that he found many of the farmers, with whom he conversed, to be men of much information and ingenuity, who carried on their business with a spirit of improving exertion.

Under the head of *Implements*, this work is more copious and illustrative than any of those of the same kind which have preceded it. The want of plates to represent the various tools employed in husbandry, which is a material deficiency in most of the county reports, cannot in the present instance be made a ground of complaint, since the number of plates in these two volumes is 58; the far greater part of which exhibit delineations of numerous kinds of ploughs, harrows, horse-hoes, scufflers, extirpators, cultivators, shims, skims, &c. for the view and description of which we must refer to the volumes.

The prefatory sentences of the chapter on *Arable Land* will attract attention from the practical farmer to the statements given in this part of the report:

'Essex possesses rich marshes, extending an hundred miles in length; but the capital feature of the county is her arable land, which is cultivated, though not in perfection, yet, nearer to it than are nine in ten of the other counties. The fertility of the soil, and the good husbandry practised on it, will always render this county a very interesting object in British agriculture.'

Mr. T. Pittman, of Barking, is mentioned as one of the greatest potatoe-planters in the kingdom; having in general 300 acres annually cultivated with this useful root, and sending to market three thousand tons of potatoes, all washed and ready for sale!

Besides the cultivation of wheat, barley, oats, beans and peas, turnips and cabbages, Mr. Young notices that of

Carrots, Parsnips, Hops, Coriander and Carraway, Weld, Mustard, Buck-wheat, Sainfoin, and Lucerne.

Respecting *Natural Woods* in this county, it is stated that they have been very much diminished both in number and extent within the last fifty years. Of *Waste Lands*, Essex contains 15,000 acres; and it is recommended to improve Epping forest as a nursery for Navy timber. The opinion of Mr. Conyers, of Copt-hall, on this topic, ought not to be slighted:

'It has been proved (says this gentleman) of late years to be very possible to raise oaks in this forest, even in its present unenclosed state, by no other exertion whatever than that of preserving the bushes. On those parts where a general devastation of the timber has been prevented, there are ocular proofs remaining of what the land can produce; and the experiment that I have made on about 400 acres, justifies me in the opinion, that it is extraordinary good woodland; the part I allude to, about 14 or 15 years ago, bore the most wretched appearance that can be described. It is to be lamented, that a survey of the various rights and soils on the forest of Epping, and the sorts of trees inclined to grow upon it, has not been made an object of peculiar attention, that the public, and the Board of Agriculture, might have been led to have formed an opinion, whether this extent of country, the extremities of which border almost on the Thames, and on the river Lea, and approach to within six miles of the metropolis, would be best under the plough or in a state of woodland. As to the enclosure of it, all must wish for such an event, who are witnesses to the evils arising from its present state of barbarism.'

Every person who passes through Epping forest must lament its neglected state. This waste, and Hounslow heath, reproach the metropolis on the west and on the east.

A frontispiece to the second volume contains a view of Mr. Whitbread's chalk-quarry at Purfleet; and in the section on *Manures*, we have a full account of his lime-kiln establishment, as one of the most interesting that is to be found in Essex. We insert an extract on this subject:

'On that gentleman's estate there is a bold cliff of chalk covered by many feet of surface loam: from the magnitude of the excavation it has probably been wrought for many years; but the present possessor gave a new appearance to the place, and a fresh vigour to the works, by laying down iron rail-ways, for every purport of carting; 25 horses were constantly employed: since these ways have been made four do the work, and 21 have been dismissed, which ate each half a bushel of oats per diem the year round. The loam which covers the chalk is sold to shipping for ballast at 1s. 1d. per cart-load of one ton and a quarter: chalk is delivered into the barges at 2s. 6d.: flints, the load, (one ton and a half) at 14s.; and lime at 19s. 6d. One horse draws five or six waggons loaded. The disposition of the rail-ways is complete—they lead to the bottom of the cliff to receive loam, which

which is shovelled down to large wooden hoppers, which pour it at once into the carts, by means of the skeleton chalk rock being left in forms that conduct it. Ways lead hence also for delivering the broken chalk directly to the kilns, which for this purpose are built in a deeper excavation; and coals are also distributed by other *ways*. From the kilns, distinct iron roads lead also to shipping for delivery of the lime: the waggons are backed to the ship or barge side, and unloaded at once by tilting them up.'

To illustrate this account, two plates are annexed, containing a view and sections of the Purfleet waggon.

Essex was never celebrated for its *Live Stock*, yet the chapter with this title contains matter not unworthy of notice. Mr. Young informs us that the introduction of South Down sheep and Devon cattle has made the farmers *think* on the subject of *breeds*, which he is persuaded will produce a good effect.—Keeping Cows for suckling calves being an object which generally pervades this county, a full account is given of this process, and a description is inserted of Mr. Conyers's Dairy, with a receipt to cure 'Calves Scouring.' As this latter is pronounced to be 'almost infallible,' and may be of use to those of our agricultural readers who have no opportunity of perusing county-reports, we shall insert it:

'Two tea-spoonsful of rhubarb, and a table spoonful of peppermint-water, kneaded well: if one dose does not stop it, a second is given with a little red wine added. One of Mr. Robinson's calves was dying, as they conceived, and this medicine recovered it.'

From this disorder, to which calves are so very subject, we shall pass to the malady most fatal to Sheep, *i. e.* the *Rot*, in order to record a singular fact mentioned by this reporter:

'Wherever I have been, in the marsh districts of Essex, and they are numerous and extensive, I have inquired for this distemper, and agues, and marsh fevers. The answer has been every where the same —*the rot unknown, but agues in plenty.*'

Instead of styes for Pigs, *Cases* on wheels are recommended, which may be shifted from place to place, and if necessary moved about on grass land for its improvement. Plates representing these Pig-cases are inserted.

A section, occupying five pages, is assigned at the end of this chapter to the subject of *Fish*, as an article of profit to those who have large ponds on their farms. 'This, (says Mr. Y.,) of all the other branches of rural economy, is the least practised and the least understood in England; yet fish is every where a great luxury, and sells at a high price.'

In the section on the *Poor*, a long discussion is inserted from the pen of Mr. Howlett, in which he offers some objections against '*Benefit Clubs holden at public houses*,' and

is decidedly of opinion that 'no contrivance short of adaptation of wages to the price of provisions, will ever be permanently efficacious for the reduction of the poor-rates.'

This report concludes with *a comparison of times*, in which an attempt is made to ascertain the rise in the price of labour, artisan's work, rent, rates, &c. from 1790 to 1803, which is averaged at 71 per cent.

In thus detailing some of the most striking contents of these volumes, many subordinate particulars are necessarily passed over in silence, in order to comprize the article within reasonable limits: but we trust that the sketch which we have taken will be a sufficient indication of the merit of this elaborate compilation and record of agricultural minutes.

As usual, a map of the County is prefixed. Mo-y.

ART. VIII. *Mr.* Coxe's *History of the House of Austria*, &c.

[*Art. continued from p.* 17.]

AFTER the shock that the mind receives while contemplating the continual agitation in which the world was held by Charles V., we relish the comparative tranquillity of the reign of the moderate Ferdinand, and contemplate with renovated pleasure the still more wise and benignant government of his accomplished son Maximilian II., who has not improperly been styled the German Titus. Ferdinand, who forms so diminutive a figure in most histories, is properly placed by Mr. Coxe more in the foreground: while the reflections of the historian himself, on the principal error in that sovereign's administration, are worthy of a free-born Briton, and shew a deep insight into the structure of society, as well as the causes of the welfare and prosperity of states. The Bohemians were possessed of rights and privileges which enabled them not only to enjoy but to abuse liberty. Their own turbulence and precipitancy, united with untoward incidents, placed this people at the mercy of their chief; who, in an evil moment, treated them as traitorous slaves, and not as offending freemen. He invaded their religious privileges, and deprived them of some of their most valuable rights. It must be owned, however, that the temptation was great, and that the provocation had not been slight; it required, therefore, a magnanimity which rarely falls to the lot of man, wholly to refrain from the excess into which Ferdinand fell in this instance.

We are induced to submit to our readers a few traits from Mr. Coxe's portrait of Ferdinand, whose fate it has been to be so much overlooked by other writers. We concur with this able and diligent historian in the praise which he bestows on that monarch's tolerant spirit: but, had he possessed it in a higher degree, the cause which shortened his days would have had no access to his mind, and probably would even have had no existence.

'Ferdinand died on the 25th of July 1564, in the sixty-second year of his age, of a fever which was occasioned by the chagrin arising from the religious troubles in his own dominions, and the failure of all his attempts to heal the schism of the church.

'Though as Protestants it is impossible not to consider Ferdinand as the great oppugner of religious truth, and the principal supporter of catholic errors, yet we cannot deny him the praise of an ardent and sincere attachment to the religion of his ancestors, free from bigotry and intolerance, to a degree unusual in his age and family. He saw and lamented the abuses of the church, and by his attempts to procure a real reformation, exposed himself to the odium of the Catholics; but he left an unequivocal proof of his religious sentiments in a paper annexed to his will, with the hope that this last memorial of a deceased parent would make a deep impression on the minds of his children. In this paper, he exhorted them with paternal tenderness to maintain an inflexible attachment to their religion; and corroborated his arguments by detailing the troubles and calamities which he considered as derived from the introduction of the Lutheran doctrines, and by holding forth to them the prospect both of celestial and terrestrial blessings as the reward of their obedience.

'Ferdinand in his youth possessed uncommon beauty of countenance, and, in his more advanced age, united with a graceful deportment the dignity and gravity of a sovereign. To the completion of his education, according to the plan of Erasmus, he probably owed a greater degree of taste and erudition than usually falls to the lot of a monarch. Besides the Spanish, Italian, German, and French languages, he was well acquainted with classical literature, and possessed a general knowledge of the arts and sciences. He evinced his taste and disposition by the great delight which he found in perusing the Greek writers, and the predilection he shewed for Cæsar and Cicero. He was attached to the society of the learned, whom he treated with freedom and familiarity, patronized men of letters, and maintained an intimate correspondence with Erasmus, on whom he conferred marks of distinction and liberality expressive of his gratitude and respect. Among others, he also employed and favoured the learned Busbequius, who is distinguished for his embassy to Constantinople, and his excellent account of the Turks.

'In domestic life he was a model of temperance, decorum, and sobriety, and was remarkable for a placid and forgiving disposition. He was faithful to the marriage bed; and, even after the death of a beloved wife, preserved an inviolable continence.

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'Bred up by Spanish priests, and led astray by the example of his brother, Ferdinand gave, in the fervour of youth, and the career of victory, proofs of intolerance and despotism; but, unlike Charles, he became more wise and moderate as he advanced in years, varied and adapted his conduct to contingencies, and gradually corrected those arbitrary and persecuting principles which he had imbibed in the school of Ferdinand the Catholic. The characteristic qualities of Ferdinand, when matured by experience, were application, vigilance, mildness, and impartiality; policy without deceit, courage without ostentation. He did not possess the brilliant talents of his brother, yet neither did he inherit that restless and despotic genius, which led Charles to sacrifice to his own ambitious views the tranquillity and happiness of his people. Though he did not attract the wonder of his age, he deserved, and obtained what was far more desirable, the esteem of his contemporaries and the love of his subjects. He may justly be called the pacificator of Germany; and to him may be attributed the lustre of that branch of the House of Austria of which he was the head.'

The manner in which Mr. Coxe introduces Maximilian II. to the notice of his readers may be displeasing to fanatics of different sorts, but it will not offend persons of a discreet and sober turn of mind, who are accustomed to comprehensive views of human affairs, and who value practical good. That amiable monarch does not seem to have been endowed with the enthusiasm of a confessor and martyr, but probably was of opinion that, in the view of the Universal Father, the spirit of religion is of more value than its forms; and that sincere homage may be conveyed to heaven and be received with equal favour, though expressed by different formularies and accompanied by different ceremonies. If such a notion could be erroneous, still we should regard it as a venial if not a desireable mistake in princes and rulers; as an error which is friendly to the tranquillity of the world, and the welfare of empires. If state necessity will justify crimes, and flagrant breaches of morality, why should it not palliate a laxity in religious zeal, when such laxity prevents wars and bloodshed and devastation: but can that zeal, which would appal the conscience by violence, or tempt it by bribes, be acceptable to heaven? We are aware that the decrees of councils, and the enactments of senates, give a sanction to this zeal: but with us it is not less clear that reason, and the feelings of uncorrupted nature, revolt against it; and we are not able to reconcile it with that universal goodwill which is the leading feature of christianity; nor with the temper of that religion which ascribes more virtue to the Samaritan heretic than to the orthodox Levite, and which prefers even the sincere

publican (a heathen) to the pharisee, the strict conformist of the day.

Schisms existed among the protestants at this time; and this liberal sovereign did not deem it degrading to interpose his good offices even to heal them, and to ensure to one branch of that religious body those rights and privileges which were denied by bigots embarked with them in the same cause. How justly he thought, and how strongly he felt, on this subject, may be collected from an anecdote here related:

'Although Maximilian was father-in-law to Charles the Ninth, at whose command the massacre of St. Bartholomew was perpetrated, he publicly expressed his abhorrence of such sanguinary proceedings; and, on the death of Charles, when Henry of Valois, in returning from Poland to take possession of the crown, passed through Vienna, he laboured to dissuade him from similar acts of persecution, and made that memorable observation, which has been recorded so much to his honour, "That no crime was greater in princes than to tyrannize over the consciences of their subjects; and that, far from honouring the common Father of all, by shedding the blood of heretics, they incurred the divine vengeance; and, while they aspired by such means to crowns in heaven, they justly exposed themselves to the loss of their earthly kingdoms."

It appears that this great and good prince was often thwarted in his benevolent and tolerant schemes: but he was seldom wholly diverted from his object. The meddling of the Pope, seconded by the Spanish Monarch, did indeed cause him to halt in realizing projects of this sort, but nothing could make him tread back one step in this not less glorious than charitable career. He did not think that his power in Bohemia was compromised, or that the church was endangered, because all civil and military offices were open to Bohemians of every religious persuasion; and during his reign no difference was made between subjects on this account. Since, then, in the list of monarchs, few present equal claims with Maximilian II. to wisdom, beneficence, and a liberal spirit, we are tempted to submit to our readers the portrait which Mr. Coxe has sketched of him, though it be somewhat minute:

'Maximilian had long felt his health declining, and his end was hastened by the anxiety and fatigue derived from mental and bodily exertions. Like his great ancestor of the same name, he was fond of meditating and discoursing on the immortality of the soul; and he met his death with the calmness and resignation of a christian. He expired at Ratisbon, where he had been holding a diet, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the twelfth of his reign.

'Contemporary writers have left no specific description of the person and features of this amiable monarch; but all agree in extolling the

the grace and elegance of his manners, and the fascination of his conversation and deportment. His life and reign exhibit the fairest and most pleasing picture of the qualities of his mind.

'Maximilian, by his vigour, activity, and address, gained, when young, the esteem and favour of Charles the Fifth, who used to call him his right hand, gave him his eldest daughter Mary in marriage, and, before he had attained the twenty first year of his age, appointed him viceroy of Spain, during his absence with Philip in Germany and the Low Countries. But though instructed in the arts of government by Charles, Maximilian was not swayed by his example, or allured by the splendour of his atchievements; for, instead of adopting those principles of dissimulation and duplicity, and that unbounded ambition which disgraced the head of the empire, he distinguished himself by frankness, candour, mildness, moderation, benevolence, and liberality of sentiment.

'He loved, cultivated, and encouraged the arts and sciences, and held men of learning in the highest confidence and esteem. He was remarkable for his knowledge of languages, and was not unaptly compared to Mithridates, for the facility with which he spoke the different tongues of the various people over whom he reigned. He was, besides, well read in Latin, and conversed in it with great ease, purity, and elegance. Though of a convivial disposition and fond of society, his course of life was sober and regular; lively and facetious in conversation, he tempered, without debasing the dignity of his station, by the most affable and condescending behaviour, and Henry of Valois, himself a pattern of courtesy, declared, that in all his travels, he had never met a more accomplished gentleman. Nor were these pleasing qualities assumed merely for public occasions, and to dazzle the eyes of his courtiers; for in private he was equally good and amiable; a faithful and affectionate husband, a tender parent, and a kind and benevolent master.

'Like our great Alfred he was regular and systematical in the distribution of his time; and his hours were distinctly appropriated for prayer, business, diversion, and repose. In his consultations he listened with patience and complacency to the opinions of all; and it was justly observed by the vice-chancellor of the empire, that had he been a chancellor or secretary, he would have surpassed all his chancellors and secretaries, and rendered his ministers his scholars. He was accessible to persons of all distinctions; after his dinner, he gave a general audience to his subjects, sitting or standing by the table; addressed himself with singular courtesy to the meanest persons, and possessed the rare talent of never dismissing his petitioners dissatisfied. He was economical without parsimony, fond of plainness and simplicity no less in his apparel than in his diet, and he carried his contempt of finery so far, that he never purchased a single jewel for his personal attire.

'We recite with pleasure the testimony of the Bohemian embassadors who were deputed to promote his interests with the Poles, no less as a true picture of his general conduct than as a heartfelt testimony of gratitude from subjects to their sovereign. "We Bohemians are as happy under his government as if he were our father; our

privileges, our laws, our rights, liberties, and usages, are protected, maintained, defended, and confirmed. No less just than wise, he confers the offices and dignities of the kingdom only on natives of rank; and is not influenced by favour or artifice. He introduces no innovations contrary to our immunities; and, when the great expences which he incurs for the good of Christendom render contributions necessary, he levies them without violence, and with the approbation of the states. But what may be almost considered as a miracle, is the prudence and impartiality of his conduct towards persons of a different faith, always recommending union, concord, peace, toleration, and mutual regard. He listens even to the meanest of his subjects, readily receives their petitions, and renders impartial justice to all"

'Historians, not distinguishing between a sovereign pacific from principle and reflection, or from indolence and pusillanimity, have censured Maximilian for dilatory and inactive measures, which were the effects of precaution and policy; and have turned to scorn what ought to have been considered as the great glory of his reign, his unwillingness to involve his subjects in foreign and distant wars. In reality, his love of peace did not proceed from want of military skill, or deficiency of personal courage; as he had distinguished himself both for address and valour in the campaign of 1544, against Francis the First, and in the war of Smalkalde. It was derived from a conviction, that Germany and his hereditary countries required repose and tranquillity, after a long period of contention and war; and that the preservation of peace was the only means of soothing those religious and political animosities which had been derived from the stupendous revolutions in church and state. With him, therefore, the desire of aggrandizement was but a secondary consideration; the maintenance of peace, which he deemed the greatest blessing he could confer on his people, was the ruling principle of all his actions. From the adoption of this principle, Germany and the dominions of the House of Austria, except Hungary, enjoyed under him a series of almost uninterrupted peace; while the rest of Europe was exposed to all the evils of civil commotion, religious discord, or foreign war.

'No stronger proof of his great and amiable qualities can be given, than the concurring testimony of the historians of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, and Austria, both Catholics and Protestants, who vie in his praises, and in representing him as a model of impartiality, wisdom, and benignity; and it was truly said of him, what can be applied to few sovereigns, that in no one instance was he impelled, either by resentment or ambition, to act contrary to the strictest rules of moderation and justice, or to disturb the public tranquillity. Germany revived, in his favour, the surname of Titus, or, the Delight of Mankind; and if ever a christian and philosopher filled the throne, that christian and philosopher was Maximilian the Second.'

Maximilian was succeeded by his eldest son Rudolph II. or, as Mr. Coxe and most English authors write the name, Rhodolph.

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This prince, who ascended the throne in his 25th year, had considerable talents, and was like his father naturally mild and pacific. Unfortunately, however, his early years had been too much intrusted to the superintendence of his mother, Mary, the daughter of Charles V., who was remarkable for the blindest attachment to the Romish faith. So strong, indeed, was this ruling feature in her character, that when on the death of her husband she retired into Spain, she testified her joy at returning to a country in which *there was no heretic*, and terminated her days in a nunnery. With such an inveterate bias as Maximilian must have known her to possess, it is equally matter of surprize and regret that he consigned to her the early religious tuition of his numerous progeny. The consequence was that

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'Rhodolph was deeply imbued with her superstitious sentiments, and that tincture was strengthened instead of being weakened by his removal to the court of Madrid, whither he was sent as presumptive successor to the Spanish monarchy. His education was there completed, under the auspices of Philip, by the Jesuits, who possessed the art of fixing an almost indelible impression on youthful minds, and whose mode of education tended rather to fill and occupy than to expand and exercise the understanding; to render their pupils sedentary and contemplative, and to inure them to the petty arts of intrigue and dissimulation, rather than to fit them for the cares of government, and the duties of active life. Hence his mother, though distant, possessed the same influence over his mind when arrived at years of discretion, as in the pliancy of youth; and, by her means, as well as by the agency of the Jesuits, he was, during his whole reign, rendered totally subservient to the court of Madrid. Even his learning, which, in a person of a different character, might have tended to counteract this predominant influence, contributed to rivet the fetters of early habit and education.'

It is not in the conduct of the new emperor alone, however, that we see exemplified at this time the mischiefs of bigotry; the protestant body first incur the ignominy, and then smart under the hardships arising out of the intolerant maxims which they themselves had sanctioned and adopted:

'Hitherto, (observes our historian,) notwithstanding all diversity of doctrine, and the persecution of the Lutherans, the princes of the reformed religion had, without distinction, sheltered themselves under the Confession of Augsburgh; but the progress of Calvinism, and its intolerant spirit, at length induced the Lutherans to form a barrier of separation, and to exclude the Calvinists from the peace of religion; and, by this measure, they were themselves led to the same acts of persecution, which they condemned in others. Under the auspices of Augustus, elector of Saxony, and Ulric, duke of Wirtemberg,

temberg, both strenuous partizans of the doctrine of Luther; a symbolical formulary, or creed, called the Book of Concord, had been drawn up by the Saxon divines, containing an explanation of the principal points of controversy, deduced from the Confession and Apology of Augsburgh, the peace of Smalkalde, and the two catechisms of Luther. It was published at Torgau, on the 25th of June, under the signature of the three secular electors, Augustus of Saxony, John George of Brandenburgh, and Louis, elector Palatine, twenty-two princes, the same number of counts, and thirty five imperial towns. It was introduced into all the dominions of the Lutheran princes; and all priests and school masters were ordered to give their public assent to its doctrines, under the pain of instant deprivation.

'John Casimir, Count Palatine of Lautern, who afterwards became administrator of the Palatinate during the minority of his nephew, endeavoured to prevent or retard the publication of this creed. His instances were ineffectually seconded by William, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and even by the embassador of Elizabeth, queen of England; and the consequence was a schism of the two parties, to the inconceivable detriment of the whole protestant body. For had the two sects formed a system of doctrine on the points in which they both agreed, in opposition to the church of Rome, instead of one derived from those abstruse doctrines on which they differed, we can scarcely doubt that their party must have become predominant, when we consider their physical strength and local situation, and their numerous partizans in every part of catholic Germany, particularly in the dominions of the House of Austria. But by this impolitic separation, and the consequent dissentions, the equipoise which subsisted between the ecclesiastical and secular electors was destroyed; and the event proved the truth of the prediction made by cardinal Commendon at the first rise of the schism, that the spirit of party and theological hatred, if let loose among the Protestants, would of itself deliver the church of Rome from the danger of that total apostacy with which she was threatened in Germany.

'The Jesuits, the great advisers and directors of Rhodolph, took advantage of these dissensions, and, with consummate ingenuity, turned the arguments adduced, and precedents established by the Protestants against themselves. They urged that the religious peace, which originally was only temporary and without legal permanency, was now abrogated; for it was not applicable to the Calvinists, because the Lutherans themselves had disclaimed them as brethren, nor to the Lutherans, because, by adopting a new creed, they no longer adhered to the Confession of Augsburgh, which was the basis of the religious peace With the same address they brought forward the mutual persecutions of the Protestants, as an argument that catholic sovereigns had as much right to deprive their protestant subjects of religious toleration, as the protestant princes had assumed by forcibly establishing, in their respective dominions, their own peculiar tenets. But they directed their principal attention to the support

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of the Ecclesiastical Reservation, as the great barrier of the catholic church in Germany.

'In conformity with their suggestions, the catholic body adopted a systematic plan for the gradual extirpation of the protestant tenets, which they carried into execution under the popular name of a reform. The grand principle of this system was to force the Protestants to insurrection, by executing strictly the letter of the peace of religion, and other compacts between the Catholics and Protestants, by interpreting in their own favour every stipulation which was left doubtful, and by revoking every tacit concession, which had been yielded from fear rather than from conviction; and thus to make every new restriction appear not an act of persecution but a just chastisement of disobedience and insurrection. As a part of this plan, it was their purpose to lessen the authority of the imperial chamber, by discontinuing the annual visitation, and gradually to transfer religious causes before the Aulic Council, which was composed of catholic members, and solely under the controul of the emperor. This project was carried into execution with uniform consistency and perseverance by the ministers who directed the counsels of the emperor, and was supported by all the weight of the Spanish court under Philip the Third, who was enabled to detach for its execution a part of the great military force which he maintained in the Netherlands.'

Mr. Coxe's picture of the state of Rudolph's dominions, a short time previously to his abdication, and that alternative itself, to which he was reduced, furnish an instructive lesson on the mischiefs of narrow and contracted religious views in governors and statesmen, who rule over kingdoms in which differences of faith are existing.

The short reign of Mathias, third son of Maximilian, and who expelled and succeeded his brother Rudolph, ushers to our notice that of his cousin Ferdinand II., and the Bohemian commotions, which gave rise to the bloody tragedy of the thirty years' war. The circumstances which favoured and hastened the elevation of this prince are particularly detailed by Mr. Coxe, who thus remarks on that event:

'When we consider the known character and conduct of Ferdinand, we are unable to account for the little opposition which he experienced from the Protestants. He was son of the archduke Charles, by Maria, a princess of Bavaria, and was born in 1578, at Gratz, the capital of Styria. On the death of his father he was brought up under the guardianship of his two cousins, the archdukes Ernest and Maximilian, who were both zealous for the catholic faith, and he completed his education at the university of Ingolstadt, under the care of the Jesuits, and of his uncle William, the fifth duke of Bavaria, a prince who was imbued with all the fanaticism of the Bavarian House, and who equalled the most devout hermit in acts of mortification and self abasement. He possessed eminent talents, and a quick comprehension; but these talents were perverted by his monastic

monastic education; and it was only owing to native energy of mind that he did not degenerate into another Rhodolph. From these circumstances his mind received an early and irremediable bias; he displayed an unremitting partiality to his teachers, passed whole days in their society, and was often heard to declare, that, had he been as free as his brothers, he would have entered into the order of Jesuits. From their instructions he derived that inflexible bigotry and intolerance, and that hostility to the Protestants, which, at this period, formed the great characteristics of their order. He frequently expressed a resolution to live with his family in banishment, to beg his bread from door to door, to submit to every insult and calamity, to lose even his life, rather than suffer the true church to be injured. When he assumed the reigns of government, he proved that these declarations were not the effusions of idle enthusiasm. He refused to confirm the privileges, which his father Charles had granted to his protestant subjects, and sent his commissaries to eject their preachers from the archducal domains; these commissaries being expelled, he collected troops to enforce the execution of his orders. In the interim, he made a pilgrimage to Loretto, and bound himself by the most solemn vows, before the miraculous image, not to rest till he had extirpated all heresy in his dominions; at Rome he was consecrated by the hands of Clement the Eighth, and his resolutions were strengthened by the exhortations of the pontiff.'

When we approached this sad æra, we turned over the leaves which contain the dismal story with elevated expectations. Aware of the extensive acquaintance with original German works which Mr. Coxe possesses, we had no doubt of finding the origin of this dreadful warfare, the various events and fluctuations of fortune which distinguished it, and the effects which resulted from it, more satisfactorily developed and described, than had yet been done in any work in our own language. With pleasure we add that in these anticipations we have not been deceived, since the narrative displays to high advantage the industry, judgment, discrimination, and liberal views of its author. The whole is in unison with the able sketch which he has drawn, of the effects which a fanatical education had produced on the sombre mind of Ferdinand; and the history of this period illustrates, beyond that of any other, the pure evils and gratuitous calamities which follow in the train of intolerance. The thirty years' war had no other cause, and its bloodshed and devastations are among the most memorable in history: it embraced the whole continent of Europe; it failed in all its objects; it was commenced in order to strengthen the head of the empire, and to annihilate the protestants, while it had the effect of diminishing the imperial prerogatives, and of giving great additional strength and stability to the protestant body; it weakened both branches of the family of Austria, and brought

the Imperial House to the brink of ruin; it introduced into the hereditary dominions a regimen which stupified and enervated the subjects; and it established in the empire a foreign influence which ever after paralyzed its exertions, and gradually induced that state of weakness which occasioned its recent subversion. In this fatal contest, we see delineated the predominant dispositions and prevailing habits of the first mover. The firmness of the man, and the ardour of the fanatic, are imprinted on his proceedings. How furiously does he commence, and how obstinately does he persevere! The resources of an immense empire administer to the rage of a frantic persecutor. Such was the man destined by heaven to be the principal scourge of the sixteenth century!

On his return to his original dominions, after his elevation to the throne of the Cæsars had been settled, and he had been invested with the crown of Bohemia,

'The first act of his government was a new order for the banishment of all the protestant preachers and school-masters, and in opposition to the remonstrances of the states, he carried the rigorous measure into execution by force. He supplied the place of the protestant seminaries, by founding two convents of Capuchins, at Gratz and Bruck, and colleges of Jesuits at Gratz, Laybach, and Clagenfurth. Although two-thirds of his subjects were Protestants, he ordered all who would not embrace the catholic faith to quit his dominions; and supplied the places of those who preferred banishment to the desertion of their faith by introducing numbers of Catholics from Wallachia and the neighbouring provinces. To complete the total expulsion of heresy, his commissaries, accompanied by an escort, passed from town to town, and from village to village, restoring the antient churches to the Catholics, and demolishing the new churches and school-houses, which had been erected by the Protestants. Notwithstanding the severity of these measures, they met with little opposition; and he experienced no obstacle to his designs, except a slight and ineffectual remonstrance of the states, and a trifling insurrection of the peasants in Carinthia and the miners of Carniola.'

Alluding to the situation of Ferdinand II. after the reduction of Bohemia, Mr. Coxe indulges in the following well-founded and important reflections:

'Had justice and moderation guided the sentiments of Ferdinand, the war might now have been terminated with honour and safety; he might have gratified his allies, and reimbursed his expences with the confiscated property of the rebels, and might have converted the elector Palatine from an enemy into a friend and dependent, by restoring him to the quiet possession of his hereditary territories. The fate of Germany, and the tranquillity of Europe, depended upon his nod; and never did a more important decision rest on the will of a single

single individual, never did the blindness and intolerance of a single man produce such an extent of mischief and calamity.'

If we bear in mind the character and conduct of Ferdinand, we shall be ready to allow with Mr. Coxe that, after the successes of Waldstein, 'his intentions were evidently directed to extirpate the protestant doctrines by the assistance of the Catholics, and then to reduce the Catholics themselves to dependence. He was likely to aid the Spaniards in recovering the United Provinces, and he hoped, by opening a communication through the Valteline with the Spanish dominions in Lombardy, to give law to Europe by the weight of their united forces.'

Our limits are much too confined to admit of our doing justice to the able manner in which the historian lays open the motives of the Swedish Hero, Gustavus Adolphus, the causes of his success, the adroit and double part acted by France, and the jarring interests of the parties who opposed Ferdinand, in this prolonged warfare. Could statesmen condescend to derive instruction from history, they would learn from this interesting portion of it how a government ought to regard differences in matters of religion.

The striking effects of the recall of Waldstein were very similar to those which attended the re-appearance of Bonaparte in France after his escape from Egypt, and they are well related by Mr. Coxe. Waldstein is, indeed, one of the most extraordinary characters in modern history. He has been ably drawn by Schiller; though Mr. C. throws some doubts on the account given by that author and many others, of the causes which led to the tragical end of the hero.

In the memorable battle of Lutzen, which soon followed, Gustavus fell covered with glory; and, as Schiller thinks, happily for his moral reputation. The historic reader will recollect the prompt stratagem by which the Duke of Saxe Weimar was able, for the moment, to repair the ill effects of the sad catastrophe, and fully to make up for the loss. We cannot refrain from copying the portrait of the Northern hero, as delineated by Mr. Coxe:

'Thus fell Gustavus Adolphus in the thirty-eighth year of his age, one of the greatest monarchs who ever adorned a throne. As an individual, he was religious without bigotry or affectation, temperate, and a pattern of conjugal fidelity and domestic affection. Though unable to conquer at all times a constitutional warmth of temper *, he possessed all the social virtues, and the conciliation of courtesy,

'* The chancellor Oxenstiern, who knew his master well, said of him to Whitelocke, "If any fault might be imputed to that king, it

courtesy, in so high a degree, that no individual was ever admitted to his converse without being charmed, or left his presence dissatisfied. To all these amiable qualities, he united the learning of a scholar, and the accomplishments of a gentleman. As a statesman he was firm, sagacious, and provident, embracing equally the grand features and minute details of the most extensive plans. As a General, he surpassed his contemporaries in his knowledge of all the branches of the military art, in a bold, inventive, and fertile genius. His intuitive sagacity, undisturbed presence of mind, and extensive foresight, were warmed and animated by an intrepidity more than heroic. No commander was ever more ready to expose his person to dangers, or more willing to share the fatigues and hardships of his troops; he was accustomed to say, "Cities are not taken by keeping in tents; as scholars, in the absence of the master, shut their books, so my troops, without my presence, would slacken their blows." Like many other great men he was a predestinarian, from a pious submission to the inevitable decrees of an all-wise providence: to those who urged him to spare his person, he replied, "My hour is written in heaven, and cannot be reversed on earth."

'He created a new system of tactics, and formed an army which was without a parallel for its excellent discipline and for its singular vigour, precision, and unity in action. He conquered, not by dint of numbers, or the impulse of a fortunate rashness, but by the wisdom and profoundness of his combinations, by his irresistible yet bridled spirit of enterprize, by that confidence and heroism which he infused into his troops. Since the days of Alexander, the progress of no conqueror had been equally rapid; since the time of Cæsar, no individual had united, in so consummate a degree, all the qualities of the gentleman, the statesman, and the soldier.'

As Schiller entertained doubts respecting the cause of the death of Gustavus, we may presume that few English readers have satisfied themselves on this controverted point: but we think that Mr. Coxe's note (at p. 789) must be regarded as setting the matter for ever at rest, and deciding that he met his fate in fair hostility. On general principles, indeed, and in the absence of proof against the accused, we have ever classed the charge preferred against the monarch's supposed assassin, among the fables which for a time mingle themselves with true history.

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it was that sometimes he would be very choleric. It was his temper. He was wont to say to me, "You are too phlegmatic; and if somewhat of my heat was not mingled with your phlegm, my affairs would not succeed so well as they do." To whom, with his leave, I would answer: 'Sir, if my phlegmatic temper did not mingle some coolness with your heat, your affairs would not be so prosperous as they are.' At which answer the king would laugh heartily, and give me my freedom of speaking fully to him." Whitelocke's Journal, vol. i. p. 347.'

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The long meditated treason ascribed to Waldstein by most historians is, with much plausibility, controverted by Mr. Coxe: who thus closes his account of the mysterious affair of that warrior's disgrace and assassination:

'In justice to this arrogant, ambitious, eccentric, and implacable, but great and injured, man, we have deemed it our duty to strip his cause of its false colouring and specious exaggerations; and to describe his conduct as it appeared on a candid and unimpassioned review. Though at last driven into treason by pride, indignation, ill-requited service, and self-defence, it was, during the greater part of his splendid career, his honour and his boast to raise the authority and glory of Austria, and to become the sole instrument and supporter of her power. He was far superior to his sovereign in true policy, in liberality of sentiment, in religious toleration; and these qualities (the want of which occasioned all the misfortunes of Ferdinand) became the theme of accusation in a bigotted and tyrannical court. His crime was that of being too powerful, of contemning the prejudices and passions of those on whom he was dependent, and of an overweening confidence in his own good fortune and superior abilities. These were his failings as a courtier; as a General he deserves a high rank in a martial age, and a period of great men. He does not, like his royal antagonist, astonish us by daring efforts, and splendid enterprizes; but, though he did not want fire when necessary, his distinguishing characteristics were extreme vigilance and presence of mind, profound judgment and unshaken perseverance; and it is the greatest eulogium we can pay to his character and talents as a soldier, to add, that he was the only General who checked the progress or defeated the designs of Gustavus Adolphus.'

We are inclined to think that, in the present sketch, the author had principally in his eye Waldstein after his recall: and that he did not sufficiently bear in mind the different circumstances of the two heroes. When the imperial General re-assumed the command, he found his antagonist in the midst of his victorious career, with his laurels still green, while his own atchievements were in a degree forgotten. We apprehend that if these chiefs had changed situations, each would have altered his conduct, and each would have adopted the line which the other followed. It is remarkable that a hero and a conqueror is rarely a bigot. Cromwell, a fanatic up to a mature age, favoured unlimited toleration; bigotry is not among the vices of Bonaparte; and Mr. Coxe records the enlarged views of Waldstein. In similar circumstances with the two former, he probably would have acted a similar part, and perhaps with a corresponding good fortune. In heroic qualities, all the three may be nearly equal: but in native generosity, and real magnanimity, we cannot help

considering the English usurper as having much the superiority over the other two.

The liberal views and the judgment of Mr. Coxe appear with equal effect in his concluding character of Ferdinand; whom heaven, in compassion to the sufferings of mankind, at length withdraws from the scene. We should with pleasure quote the passage if we had room for it, but must be contented with referring to pp. 914—16.

In a similar spirit with that in which the historian closes the last reign, he commences his account of the succeeding monarch:

'As the faintest gleam of light, to those who have been long surrounded with storms and hurricanes, seems to presage a returning calm, so the death of a bigotted emperor, and the accession of a tolerant prince, gave hopes that peace would be speedily restored to Germany. But after so long and dreadful a contest it was no easy task to re-establish tranquillity; for the ravages of the war had impressed the deepest antipathy on the minds of the contending parties, and the varied and contradictory connections of eighteen years, had left an endless variety of jarring interests to accommodate and disentangle. The new monarch, unable to obtain any terms of peace, but such as would have dishonoured the memory of his father, injured the interests of his House, and endangered the Catholic cause, was compelled to continue a contest entailed on him with his inheritance, and of which he had seen and deplored the fatal effects.'

The war still lasted for several years, and was carried on with various fortune: but it now partook of the nature of ordinary wars: the malignant spirit of bigotry no longer occasioned its termination to be viewed as at an immeasurable distance; and another Ferdinand, the son and successor of its author, rendered humanity the service of bringing it to a close. He is thus described by Mr. Coxe:

'Without those energies of mind, without those splendid talents or striking defects which marked the character of his father, Ferdinand the Third was mild, prudent, attentive to the affairs of state, and skilful in conducting them; and so great a lover of justice, that his own declaration may be with truth applied to him, "During his whole reign no one could reproach him with a single act which he knew to be unjust." He was conversant in various languages, and a lover and patron of the arts and sciences. He was not deficient in military skill, and, from his conduct in the battle of Nordlingen, and his campaign in Bohemia, we may conclude that he would have distinguished himself as a warrior, had he not been kept from the field by the weakness of his constitution, which, at an early period, suffered from the attacks of the gout. Though educated by Jesuits, and brought up under the auspices of his bigotted father, he rose superior to that intolerant spirit which gave rise to all the miseries of Germany, and even liberated himself from the trammels which his

preceptors

preceptors usually fixed on the minds of their pupils; for he took from their society the direction of the Caroline university, and confined them to deliver lectures on philosophy and theology.'

For a full exposition of the incalculable prejudices which this war of religion occasioned to the House of Austria, we must refer to the history before us. We would only repeat that it caused the prerogatives of the head of the empire to be called in question, and to become inefficient; that it rendered the empire in a manner independent of its chief; that it weakened the catholic, and established the rights and communities of the protestant states; and that it added to their strength by large and important acquisitions, and still more by the union among them to which it gave stability. Moreover, by the treaty in which it ended,

'France, (as Mr. Coxe remarks,) was enabled to secure passages into Germany and Italy; to avail herself of those regulations which rendered the empire an aristocracy, by detaching the minor states from their chief; and to form, on every occasion, a powerful party against the emperor or the House of Austria. Under the pretext of the joint guaranty, to which she was entitled by this treaty, she found a never-failing excuse for interfering in the affairs of the empire; she assumed the protection of the weaker states, by affecting to support their liberties; and seized continual opportunities of increasing that influence, which was already too predominant, and afterwards became fatal to Germany.'

Thus does this arrogant propensity, which is an usurpation of the prerogatives of omniscience,—and which reduces the upright individual to the cruel alternative of foregoing his dearest civil rights, or of wounding his conscience,—carry with it its own punishment, when unfortunately it sways the bosom of rulers. In vain will its advocates turn over the pages of history, to find any prejudice which has arisen to states from the allowance of religious liberty in its utmost extent. From the epoch of the reformation to the peace of Westphalia, the history of Germany forms only a series of elucidations of the expediency and policy of religious liberty, and of the mischiefs and calamities of which bigotry is productive. Mr. Coxe has properly seized the spirit of the period. The manner in which he developes it shews at once the judicious philosopher and the charitable divine; the facts which he relates, and his reflections on them, present important lessons on civil policy; and they inspire the philanthropist with the hope, that statesmen will in time be taught to render differences in religious matters harmless by banishing all distinctions on account of them, and by cherishing all their subjects, whatever be their forms of faith, with equal kindness and affection.

The crowded events of this part of European history, the superior interest which it derives from the manner in which it has here been penned, and the additional light thrown on it by Mr. Coxe, in consequence of the access which he has obtained to rare and remote sources, have occasioned this article to be prolonged to an unusual extent, and oblige us to devote another to the remaining portion of the work.

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

ART. IX. *The Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Crural and Umbilical Hernia*, &c. &c. By Astley Cooper, F.R.S. Surgeon to Guy's Hospital, &c. Illustrated by Plates. Part II. Folio. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

It gives us great pleasure to announce to our surgical readers the second part of Mr. Cooper's valuable publication on this malady. After having, in his first volume, described the inguinal hernia, he now proceeds to give an account of the crural, the umbilical, and of the other less frequent and less important varieties of the disease. His general method of discussing the subject is similar to that which he followed in his former treatise; he begins by describing the structure of the parts concerned in the disease, the symptoms, and the anatomy in the morbid state; the removal of the affection by the different internal or external applications, and by means of the appropriate operation; and lastly he adduces a number of cases, taken from his own practice, and that of his correspondents, in order to illustrate or confirm his particular views.

The first chapter contains a very minute description of the parts affected by crural hernia in their natural state; especially of the different ligaments and fasciæ which either contribute to form the passage through which the hernial sac protrudes, or are presented to view during the operation for its removal. Poupart's ligament, as it was formerly called, but to which Mr. Cooper gives the name of the crural arch, first comes under consideration; and our attention is particularly directed to another ligamentous body, that was first announced by M. Gimbernat, and has more lately been described by Mr. Hay and Mr. Burns, which, as it appears, is the immediate cause of the stricture in crural hernia. Mr. C. thinks that it is formed from the thickening or duplicature of the edge of the *fascia lata.*—We have next an account of the 'parts which shut the abdomen from the thigh;' they are detailed with unusual precision, but it would be impossible to convey any idea of them without the aid of plates; and we shall notice only one part which he describes under the title

of the internal abdominal ring: it is formed by what he calls the *fascia transversalis*, and is the passage through which the spermatic chord and the round ligaments descend. The chapter concludes with a comparison of the parts as they exist in the two sexes: from the greater breadth of the pelvis, the dimensions of the crural ring are necessarily larger in the female; and on this account women are much more subject to crural hernia than men. This disease is thus described:

'The first symptom of the disease is pain produced on straightening the thigh, which extends to the stomach, and produces nausea, and when the thigh is examined, an absorbent gland may be more distinctly felt in that groin than in the other, and gives considerable uneasiness even on slight pressure. The first time this pain is perceived is generally at night, when the patient, after stooping to undress, suddenly rises and straightens the limb; and it continues some time after he is in bed, obliging him to lie with the knees elevated, which posture soon relieves him. The cause of the pain on stretching the limb is the extension of the fasciæ of the thigh and the pressure which they make on the tumour.

'The first distinct external mark of crural hernia is a general swelling of the part easily returnable by pressure, descending in the erect and ascending in the recumbent posture, and which at first seems to be only the dilatation of the sheath that contains the crural artery and vein. The next appearance is that of a small circumscribed tumour, about the size of the finger's end, situated under the crural arch, about an inch on the outside of the tuberosity of the pubis, and lying in the hollow between this process and the crural artery and vein. As the tumour enlarges, instead of falling downwards like the inguinal hernia, it passes forwards and often turns over the anterior edge of the crural arch, this being the direction in which there is the least resistance. As it proceeds, the swelling increases more laterally than upwards or downwards, so as to assume an oblong shape, the longest diameter being in a transverse or horizontal direction. In the female, it is generally very moveable, and, being soft, and the skin not being discoloured, it has the appearance merely of an inguinal tumour of one of the absorbent glands: but in the male the skin is generally not so loose, the swelling not so distinctly circumscribed, and the tumour appears buried more in the substance of the thigh.'

We think that our professional readers will not object to a farther quotation, respecting the appearances on dissection:

'The crural hernia, when dissected, presents the following appearances: when the skin is removed, the superficial fascia of the external oblique muscle is laid bare, which, though it is of a delicate texture in its common state, when pressed upon by a hernia becomes extremely thickened and very distinct, more especially in a subject loaded with fat. Under this covering, there is generally another fascia, precisely of the form of the hernia itself, and which it very closely embraces. A thin fascia naturally covers the opening through which the hernia passes, and descends on the

posterior

posterior part of the pubis. When the hernia therefore enters the sheath, it pushes this fascia before it, so that the sac may be perfectly drawn from its inner side, and the fascia which covers it left distinct. The fascia which forms the crural sheath, and in which are placed the hole or holes for the absorbent vessels, is also protruded forwards, and is united with the other, so that the two become thus consolidated into one. If a large hernia is examined, this fascia is only found to proceed upwards as far as the edge of the orifice on the inner side of the crural sheath by which the hernia descends, but in a small hernia it passes into the abdomen as far as the peritoneum, and forms a pouch, from which the hernial sac may be withdrawn, leaving this forming a complete bag over the hernia. In a small hernia, the fascia is thicker than the sac itself, but by being gradually extended, it becomes thinner and less distinct; and in one example of this kind from the female subject, this and the superficial fascia have coalesced into one. I first observed this fascia in dissecting a male subject brought into St. Thomas's Hospital in the year 1800, who had a strangulated crural hernia on the one side, and a reducible one on the other. I next saw it in the operation performed upon Mrs. Bispham, and have since demonstrated it in preparations while delivering my lectures on crural hernia. It may be termed the *fascia propria* of the crural hernia. When it is divided, a quantity of adipose membrane is found between it and the sac, and when this is cut through, the peritoneal sac itself is exposed. Behind the hernial sac is the *fascia lata*, and the sac rests in the hollow between that part of it which covers the crural vessels, and that which passes over the pectineus and triceps muscles, so that the *fascia lata* is situated posteriorly to the hernia.'

The diagnosis is, for the greater part, not very difficult: but the disease is the most easily confounded with the inguinal hernia, and such mistakes are of serious consequences, with respect both to the attempts that are made for the reduction of the tumour and to the method of performing the operation: since, in each of these instances, a different plan is to be pursued, according as the disease is of the one or the other of these species. In order to avoid this unfortunate error, the two following circumstances are laid down by Mr. Cooper, as the most obvious marks of distinction between the inguinal and the crural hernia; first, the neck of the inguinal hernia is situated above the tuberosity of the pubis, but that of the crural below it, and to its outer side; and secondly, if the sac be drawn down in the crural hernia, the crural arch may be traced above it.

As, on account of the structure of the parts, the crural is less frequent than the inguinal hernia, so for the same reason, when it does occur, it is more difficult of reduction, and more liable to become strangulated. In the 3d. chapter, we have this clear and accurate description of the method of employing the taxis:

'The position of the patient is to be such as to relax the abdomen as much as possible, for which purpose the shoulders should be elevated, and the thighs bent at right angles with the body: but even this posture produces but little effect, unless the knees are at the same time brought together. If the parts are dissected directly with the view of observing what difference it made in the relative tension of parts in the dead body, it will be found that, when the thighs are extended, the crural arch and all its fasciæ are upon the stretch; when the thighs are bent, but the knees turned outwards, the fasciæ are somewhat relaxed; but when the thighs are bent and the knees brought together, the crural arch and its fasciæ are all extremely loosened, and still more are the parts loosened by throwing one thigh, when bent, across the middle of the other. When the body is in the recumbent posture, the thighs bent, and the knee thrown inwards, the surgeon is to place himself over the body of the patient, and putting both his thumbs on the surface of the tumour, he is to press gently directly downwards, as if he were endeavouring to press the tumour into the thigh rather than towards the abdomen. If this pressure is steadily kept up for some minutes, till the surface of the tumour is brought even with the line of the crural arch, the hernia may then be pressed towards the abdomen, and will return into that cavity. I am convinced that much of the difficulty found in returning this species of hernia often depends on the improper direction given to the pressure: for if the tumour is pressed at first towards the abdomen, it turns over the crural arch, instead of passing under it; and then the utmost degree of force which may be applied will only endanger the bursting of the intestine, but cannot contribute to its reduction.'

If, however, the reduction be not speedily accomplished by the hand, other means must be adopted, viz. opium, the warm bath, the external application of cold, and the tobacco glyster: but it is observed that these remedies are less frequently efficacious here than in the inguinal hernia, because the parts concerned, being more of a tendinous nature, are necessarily less affected by those means which act only on the muscular power. It is therefore more essentially important not to delay the operation, both because any other means afford less hope of relief, and because the greater tightness of the stricture causes the mortification to come on with more rapidity.—The operation is next described through all its different stages; the fasciæ which successively present themselves, and the different parts in which the strictures exist, are minutely detailed; and particularly that which is formed by Gimbernat's ligament, which may be considered as the essential part of the disease. Mr. Cooper advises that it should be divided 'upwards with a slight obliquity inwards.' —A number of interesting cases then succeed, taken from the practice of the author himself, or that of his friends; and they

they are selected with the view of illustrating some particular opinion respecting the disease, or of warning the operator against some point of practice, the bad effects of which are not sufficiently known. It is from this laudable motive that we have the relation of a case which terminated fatally after the operation, in consequence of the sac being returned into the abdomen unopened, at the mouth of which, as it afterward appeared, the stricture was situated. Some cases are detailed, in which the operation was delayed until the intestines had advanced into a state approaching to mortification, and they all ended fatally. On this occasion, Mr. Cooper makes the following observation:

'These four cases strongly point out the danger of delay; and so strongly am I impressed with this belief, that if I were myself the subject of strangulated crural hernia, I should only try the effect of tobacco glysters, and if they did not succeed after a judicious trial of the taxis, would have the operation performed in twelve hours from the accession of the symptoms.'

Two cases are stated, in which, by dividing the stricture of Gimbernat's ligament inwards, towards the *symphisis pubis*, according to the method recommended by M. Gimbernat himself, the intestine appeared to have been wounded; an occurrence which determined Mr. Cooper 'never again to cut inwards, on account of the danger of tearing, as well as of cutting the intestine.'

The umbilical hernia is less frequent than the inguinal, but more common than the crural, and it is a less formidable complaint than either of them. Its diagnosis is simple; its reduction is not, in general, difficult; and the operation, when necessary, is more easy to be performed. It is well known to be not a rare occurrence with new-born children: but, by the proper application of a truss, we may hope to obtain a permanent cure. In adults, pregnancy is the most frequent cause of this disease: but it is also produced by excessive obesity, and it sometimes attends ascites. The circumstance which most frequently produces strangulation in the umbilical hernia seems to be over-distension of the stomach, from flatulent or indigestible food. When the taxis has failed, the hernia may sometimes be reduced by the operation of calomel in large doses, united with a small quantity of opium; and when this is inefficacious, the tobacco glyster is frequently found to be beneficial: this remedy is indeed more successful here than in any other species of hernia. It does not, however, always produce the desired effect, and the operation must finally be performed. The author describes this process with his usual precision, and then relates, as on former occa-

sions, a number of valuable cases.—The volume concludes with some account of the less frequent species of hernia.

The contents of Mr. Cooper's performance are intitled to our almost unqualified approbation, as displaying an extent of information, a solidity of judgment, and a spirit of candor, which are rarely united; it is indeed an invaluable present to the medical profession; and we are concerned that any circumstance connected with it should require our censure. Justice, however, forces us to recur to the objection which we stated in our review of the first part, to the expensive and unwieldy form in which the work is given to the public. On this subject, the author concludes his preface with remarking:

'The size of the work has been objected to, and I am very ready to acknowlege its inconvenience, but I hope that this will be counterbalanced by the advantage of having all the parts exactly of their natural size, which gives a facility for making measurements, and ascertaining the relative position of parts, with as much accuracy as could be done by reference to the dead body.

'With respect to the execution of the plates, I should think it unworthy of the importance of the subject, and (let me be allowed to add) of the pains which I have bestowed upon it, if I had had the paltry ambition of being the editor of *splendid* plates. My only object has been to give accurate and perspicuous engravings, such as may convey to the reader, as exactly as the pencil can do, the precise form and size of the parts which are exposed by the knife of the anatomist; and I shall consider myself as fully repaid for the attention which I have given to this subject, if my labours prove useful to those who, by being placed in less favourable circumstances than myself for actual observation, have not had the same opportunity of becoming acquainted with this disease, in the living or in the dead.'

It is painful to be obliged to expose the extreme futility of the arguments employed on this point by a man of Mr. Cooper's talents and respectability. The fact, however, is that, out of the 17 plates which accompany this volume, only three have the page nearly occupied by a single figure; in twelve of them, each plate contains several distinct figures; two have only one figure in each of about 9 inches square, although the extent of the page is nearly 23 inches by 18; and in the three large figures, the *essential part* is not much more than 12 or 13 inches square. We must farther remark that we do not perceive the alleged advantage of having the parts 'of their natural size;' nor how this circumstance contributes to 'the facility of making measurements, or ascertaining the relative position of parts.' Is not this purpose fully as well accomplished by having the figures formed on some known proportion to the natural parts? Does the architect find it necessary for the purpose of 'accurate measurement,'

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to draw his plans of the natural size? Even supposing it possible that some advantage may be gained by the present plan, we cannot comprehend the necessity for having the letter press of so stupendous a magnitude. Might not the three large plates have been folded into a moderate compass? No doubt, their *beauty* might have been endangered, but we cannot imagine that their *utility* would have been diminished. When this edition is wholly distributed in the cabinets of the curious, we earnestly hope that the author will condescend to publish his observations in a form which may render them *accessible to professional men*; and we will venture to assert that he will derive more satisfaction from the idea that, by reducing the price of his volume, he has put it in the power of a country surgeon to save the life of a fellow-creature, than from surveying Mr. Bulmer's types and Mr. Heath's engravings.—A table of *Errata* requires the reader's notice. Bos.

ART. X. *An Inquiry into the State of the British West India Islands.* By Joseph Lowe, Esq. 8vo. pp. 160. 4s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1807.

MUCH has lately been said on the subject of the state in which our West India islands are now placed by the circumstances of the war, and it is undeniable that their situation demands immediate and serious notice from the legislature. An inquiry directed to this topic is pursued in the pamphlet before us by a gentleman whose name is, to us, unknown in the annals of party, and who avers that he 'has no personal interest in the cause which he pleads:' but the manner in which he has treated it shews that he has at least made himself thoroughly conversant with the objects of his investigation; and we see every reason for giving credit to his profession that 'the reader will here be offended by no invective, and deceived by no misrepresentation. He will meet with proofs deduced from official documents, and with arguments not constructed on visionary theories, but on the basis, unfortunately too authentic, of actual experience.'

The contents of this pamphlet are arranged under three heads: '1. Of the importance of the West-India trade, as a national object; 2. Of the ruinous condition of this trade under the present circumstances, and of the consequences of its loss to the Country.—3. Observations on the means of relief; accompanied with some remarks on the effects of peace on this valuable traffic, as well as on the general commerce of

the kingdom.' It is justly remarked by the author that, though the whole of his pamphlet may afford interest to those who are connected with the West Indies, yet 'the general reader, whose attention is fixed more on the result than on the detail of the inquiry, will be chiefly interested in the latter part.' We shall, accordingly, bestow our principal attention on the observations introduced under this third head, which relate to a discussion of the utmost moment, and are in themselves by no means unworthy of their subject.

From the case here exhibited, it appears that little or no demand now exists on the continent, for British West India produce; and yet that the planters continue to grow the articles which they were accustomed to cultivate before the alteration in the foreign market.—The consequences of such a concurrence are obvious, and for the remedy we need not have recourse to much reasoning, since the lessons of past experience and the instincts of interest clearly point it out. No investigation, no enactments, can administer any other cure than one, to the evil under which the growers and dealers labour; unless, indeed, committees and senates possess the power ascribed by a late anonymous pamphleteer to the Emperor Napoleon, that of "changing the constitution of nature." This fact is so clear, that we shall allot no space to an examination of the palliatives which the present writer unites with the advocates of the same cause in proposing: but there is one expedient which, whatever may be its effect in the object which the author has in view, we cordially join him in recommending, we mean that of PEACE.

When Mr. Lowe had, rather idly, but we must admit agreeably, occupied us through the greatest part of his pamphlet with plans and schemes which amount to no more than ingenious trifling, it was matter of no small surprize to us to find our attention arrested and our whole soul engaged by a disquisition, to which neatness of statement and force of reasoning, combined with the vital and practical importance of the discussion, unite to give the highest interest; and which is here introduced because the author expects from it considerable alleviation under the pressure of the evil, to the removal of which his previous labours had been directed.

It is impossible for any one to display more of impartiality on all political questions than Mr. Lowe has here manifested; no man seems to be more free from party spirit; and if we are to understand that he is not connected with commerce, he appears to be well acquainted with its principles and interests. We therefore regard his suffrage on the present question as that of an unbiassed and qualified judge;

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and on this ground, as well as on that of the paramount importance of the inquiry, we deem it right to invite particular attention to this part of his pamphlet.

The ensuing passage will inform the reader of the manner in which Mr. L. treats this momentous subject:

'No measure which the wisdom of the British Legislature could devise, or the energy of the British nation execute, could so effectually relieve the hardships of our West-India colonies as peace. Its beneficent operation would be immediately felt in the diminished price of stores, insurance, and freight; in the multiplied channels of export; in the general security of the islands; in short, in so many various ways that the enumeration would be endless. As peace therefore is so essential to the welfare of the West Indies, and so important to the national interests at large, I shall treat at some length of our prospects of concluding it; of the terms that will probably be offered us, and of the influence of peace on our commerce and manufactures. I shall endeavour also to examine the foundation of the popular opinion, that our danger from France is greater in peace than in war, and what probability there is that a treaty with Bonaparte will be lasting.'

Mr. Lowe truly observes that, though the documents which passed on both sides during the course of the late negotiation with France have been now long before the public, it is obvious that the majority of persons have little attended to them, and that a strange misapprehension appears to prevail regarding them. 'Let him', he says, 'who desires to form an unprejudiced idea of our conduct on that occasion, read the speech of Mr. Whitbread or the declaration of Lord Yarmouth in the debate of the 5th of January 1807.'

'Many apprehended that Mr. Fox in his anxiety for peace might commit the national dignity, and that Bonaparte might presume to address this country in the insolent tone which he assumes to his weaker neighbours. But they were not aware that the "hauteur" had been chiefly on our side, and that this mighty Emperor, who dictates laws to the Continent, had condescended to ask peace from England by the restitution of Hanover, and by sanctioning our possession in perpetuity, not only of the Cape, but of Malta, the object of the war, and the point of honour between the two nations.'

This anxiety was affected by some and really entertained by others: but it certainly was founded on a total misconception of Mr. Fox's character. It is not, however, to be denied that, after the irreparable loss which the public sustained by the death of that great statesman, the "*hauteur* was on our side," as will appear by a cursory perusal of the papers. Yet Mr. Lowe is of opinion that, had not the sudden hostility of Prussia intervened, the negotiation would have ended in peace; and he observes that France was ready to admit Britain's

claim

claim to interfere in the affairs of the continent, on condition that France should be allowed an equal privilege in maritime discussions.— He is adverse to our retaining a single West India colony: but Buenos Ayres he regards as desireable; though, he adds, 'the difference of language and customs, and the incompatibility of religion, in the two countries, are powerful and permanent obstacles to render it an appendage to the British empire.' Are we, however, become so fanatical and bigotted, that we will have no colonies but those of which the inhabitants profess our own religion? In that case we shall have few colonies indeed; and perhaps the evil will not be great: but we must reprobate the narrowness from which such a consequence is deduced. Has this been our practice? Did we decline to add Canada and Trinidad to our foreign possessions because they were catholic, or Ceylon because its inhabitants were idolaters? The author says that it is not our policy to revolutionize South America: but this fact is not clear to us; and we wish that he had hinted at his reasons for the assertion. Why did we not attempt the emancipation of Buenos Ayres, rather than its conquest? This we have been told was the desire of the inhabitants; and we should, it is said, have had them to a man on our side, on this condition.

The author contends that we have mistaken the character of our mighty antagonist, by confounding the effusions of his passions with the deliberate resolves of his policy; and he thinks that the injury, which we may at any time inflict on his commerce, will deter him from lightly infringing a peace once concluded with him.

'Had Mr. Addington's ministry been skilful in apprehending the temper of their antagonist, and uniform in combining spirit with prudence, France and England might already have enjoyed several years of repose. That ministry made great concessions at Amiens for the sake of permanent tranquillity. They asked to retain nothing which might wound the pride of our rival. Had Bonaparte been a generous or magnanimous character, this moderation on our part would have assured the continuance of profound peace. But he construed our moderation into fear; and when we remonstrated on his aggressions in Switzerland, he had the infatuation to tell us, that we had no right "to interfere with the proceedings of France on any point which did not form a part of the stipulations of the Treaty of Amiens*." It is remarkable, however, that although he made this rash and arrogant reply to our remonstrance, he forbore from all further encroachments during the remaining period of peace. It is clear, therefore, that he did not intend to act upon so absurd and

* Declaration of war, May 1803.'

violent

violent a declaration, although he could not controul his temper sufficiently to forbear from making it. He told Lord Whitworth, in the memorable interview of the 17th of February, 1803, that there was no alternative but the "evacuation of Malta or the renewal of war." Yet it soon appeared in the subsequent negotiation, that had we not, by the unfortunate message of the 8th of March, proclaimed our differences to all Europe, we might have kept Malta, and avoided war. Bonaparte, after hearing of that message, declared before a numerous assembly, "Les Anglois veulent la guerre, mais s'ils sont les premiers à tirer l'epée, je serai le dernier à la remettre." Yet the event soon shewed that he was the first to make pacific overtures. Talleyrand, in the late negotiation, told Lord Lauderdale, "Jamais l'Empereur ne cedera un grain de poussière du territoire François."—Yet a short time after, his Lordship receives an overture, in which the Emperor proposes to give us both Pondicherry and Tobago. In another of these interviews, Talleyrand told his Lordship, that in forty-eight hours the fate of Hanover would be settled for ever. Yet Hanover is still unappropriated, and will be returned to us whenever we chuse to take it.—All these circumstances concur to prove, that Bonaparte's language, towards us at least, is in reality much less serious than it appears—that his declarations are at one time the ebullitions of an ungovernable temper, at another the suggestions of an artful policy. It follows that in negotiating with such a man, we must be prepared for a singular mixture of inconsistency and artifice—inconsistency when his passion masters his reason; and artifice when his reason resumes the ascendant, but receives a wayward impulse from his ambition. Our tone in the negotiation at Amiens was too moderate towards so intemperate a character; and on the other hand, the message of the 8th of March, 1803, conveyed a public affront which his pride was ill fitted to digest. In both respects, therefore, we unluckily mistook his temper. We now know it better, and the battle of Trafalgar has administered to him a lesson, of which the good effects will be long felt. To all inferior powers he will be a domineering neighbour; but we who possess such effectual means of awing his ambition, and chastising his aggressions, need only preserve a just mixture of prudence and firmness to maintain a permanent tranquillity with him. Confidence, at least personal confidence, there should be none; but what confidence has ever existed in this country towards France under any government? We may have, however, a solid ground of confidence as to the continuance of peace, from the losses which our enemy would suffer in war; and a still stronger confidence as to our own security, from a peace establishment of 60,000 seamen. War with England has always been unpopular in France. Their national vanity is mortified by perpetual defeat,. and their individual comfort destroyed by the ruin of their trade.'

The very judicious and important observations contained in this passage must be our apology for inserting it. We are perfectly of this author's opinion with regard to our tone in the negotiation at Amiens; which was as much too low on that occasion, as it seems to have been too haughty at Paris.

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When Mr. Pitt mysteriously quitted office, it would seem that he could not endure that the vacant places should be filled by men of real talents; and though it would not perhaps be perfectly equitable to judge of his successors by the account which he himself afterward gave of them, this is certain that their imbecility occasioned Bonaparte to engage in proceedings which the national spirit would not brook, and the renewal of war was the consequence. The obstruction given by Mr. Pitt to the admission of Mr. Fox and his friends to power, at that time, we regard as one of his delinquencies which his country has perhaps the most cause for condemning and bewailing. Had that equally energetic and pacific statesman then been placed at the helm, we should probably have ever since lived in the continued enjoyment of peace.

Mr. Lowe thus combats a savage sentiment which is but too prevalent, and which has been openly avowed and publicly defended by such as affect extraordinary piety:

'Our national jealousy of France, and our personal hatred of Bonaparte combine to give popularity to the war, and it has even been said that "perpetual war is preferable to any peace which we can make with our present enemy." How weak and unfounded are such sentiments! Is our enemy not sincere in his desire for peace? has he not said that his ambition is to have ships, colonies, and commerce? And does he not know that another rupture will only expose his commerce to be again ruined by our navy? It is undoubted that the desire of peace, of permanent peace, predominates in the mind of Bonaparte, certainly not from motives of humanity, but from a conviction that a permanent peace with England can alone confirm his popularity in France.'

The fears of those who imagine that peace will enable France to rear a navy which will be formidable to this country are thus repelled by the author:

'It is said that he will build vessels in Holland, France, Italy, and Spain; all these countries will train seamen for his fleet. Let him train seamen and build ships of war, and let him renew the conflict after ten years of preparation. Let him send to sea a hundred, even a hundred and fifty sail of the line—he will in vain assail our unconquerable navy. In how few hours did twenty-seven British ships annihilate an enemy's fleet of thirty-three sail of the line, drawn up in a position which gave them the full advantage of their superior numbers. No, it will be in vain for the enemy to build ships, or even to train seamen—these seamen must acquire the energy of Britons before they dispute with us the empire of the ocean. The navigation of the Mediterranean, the coasting, or even the foreign trade of Spain, nay, the coasting and foreign trade of the greatest part of France, are all very ill adapted to the training of real seamen.'

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The remarks contained in the following passage have often been inculcated on the public, but we were not aware that views so just and rational were entertained among that higher class of commercial men for whom Mr. Lowe seems to write:

'It may be said, however, that although England is independent of France, the Continent is subject to her rule—that she has humbled Austria, dismembered Prussia, and intimidated even Russia. True, but a continuance of the Continental war, offered at present, no prospect of retrieving these disasters. Every battle of the last campaign has shown the superiority of the Russian soldiers over the French, but the inferiority of their officers has been equally visible. The same observation applies to almost all the unrortunate efforts of the Austrians. It is not that Austria and Russia want numbers, and still less that they want bravery, but wisdom is wanting in their councils, to give to that bravery a just direction. All Europe, except the Austrian Government, seemed to know that the cause of their reverses lay in the defects of their tactics; yet so blind was that Government, that after twelve years of experience, they entrust an army to General Mack. Surely while our Allies were thus infatuated, it was vain to desire a continuance of hostilities on their part against the vigour of a revolutionary government. Much better had we urged them to forbear war, and to improve their resources in peace for a future contest under better auspices. We are at last awakened to this truth, though many of us think that we have learned it too late. But it is not too late. Austria has twenty millions of subjects, and may double both the number and the resources of her armies by persevering in a liberal and enlightened policy. Russia is of all countries that which would gain most rapidly by a similar system.'—

'Under present circumstances, a contest by land against France is a vain effort, but if Austria and Russia will do in tranquillity what France has done in commotion, that is, if they will draw forth the talents of their subjects, and give to merit what they have hitherto given to favour and to rank, they may bid defiance to France and disdain her controul. So great a change, however, from inveterate customs, could not be produced by a sudden effort. Reverses in war were necessary to inculcate its necessity, and the repose of peace is requisite to accomplish its execution.'

After a few other observations, Mr. L. brings the question more home to ourselves:

'Having (he says) thus taken a view of the effects of peace on the Continent, let us turn to the still more important consideration of its influence on our commerce and manufactures. Here we may confidently anticipate the happiest consequences, for our success in these respects will depend, not on the doubtful wisdom of foreign cabinets, but on our own industry and energy. All we want for the prosperous exercise of that industry, is an ample field, and this field will be afforded us by peace. A most erroneous notion has prevailed, that since the beginning of the last war we have engrossed the commerce of the world; and that at a peace we should be obliged to forego a great

part of this extended traffic. These singular illusions have arisen from our naval preponderance, and from believing, that because the mercantile marine of the nations at war with us had disappeared, it was therefore extinct. But we do not advert to the unfortunate truth, that our own mercantile shipping is in a state of rapid decrease; and to the still more conclusive fact, that the mercantile marine of our enemies navigates the ocean under neutral colours. On a late occasion, the House of Commons learnt with no small surprise, that soon after the beginning of the present war, the French mercantile marine was sold, or rather made over to the Americans, on condition of being employed under the American flag during war, and of being re-sold to the French ship-owners, within twelve months after the conclusion of peace. So far from engrossing the commerce of the world, during war, our industry is subject to restraints, both from taxes, and from interruption of intercourse with foreign countries, which would prove fatal to the industry of any other nation. Our navy commands the ocean, but can our navy open to our manufactures the markets of Spain, Germany, and France?'

A very important table is then added, exhibiting the total value of exports from Great Britain, in the years 1785—1805 inclusive, according to official returns from the Custom-House to Parliament; after which Mr. Lowe adds:

'It appears from this interesting document, that from 1785 to 1793, when the war broke out, the commerce of Great Britain was not only on the increase; but that the ratio of that increase was augmenting every year. For instance, the excess of 1786 above 1785, was three hundred thousand pounds; but the excess of 1791 above 1790, was more than two millions. Had peace continued, our exports would have increased, not only by two millions a year, as in 1791 and 1792—but by a *ratio progressively augmenting*. But what was the consequence of war? In the first year of war (1793,) our exports are lessened at once by five millions, and although this diminution is afterwards made up, the ratio of the peace increase was never recovered. Supposing we had continued at peace, and that our increase of exports had been only two millions each year, as was the case in 1791 and 1792, the amount of our yearly exports would have been sixteen millions greater than they are now. But these sixteen millions are official value, and in computing custom-house returns, it is customary to add sixty per cent. for the difference between the real and official value. Had we therefore continued at peace, instead of an apparent increase in our exports of sixteen millions, we should have had a real increase of twenty five millions!

'Another striking circumstance is exhibited by this table of official facts. Look at the only year of peace which we have enjoyed since the commencement of this tedious contest, the year 1802. In that year our exports made a sudden start of nearly four millions above the preceding year of war. Look next at the immediately succeeding year of war. Our exports that year suddenly fell nearly ten millions below those of the preceding year of peace. Observe too, what has been

been their condition since that time. They have not yet risen to the amount which they had attained in the year of war preceding the peace of Amiens. So that since the year 1800, our commerce has been worse than stationary—it has been retrograde.'

The author next shews, in a most satisfactory manner, how groundless are the apprehensions of those who anticipate a dangerous rivalry to our commerce in the markets of Europe on the part of France; and the conclusion of his remarks on this subject is equally creditable to his information and his liberality:

'We may rest assured, that our insular situation, our happy constitution, our unrivalled industry will give us a permanent superiority in navigation and commerce over France. But it is by no means our interest to ruin the trade of France. On the contrary, should we not desire that she possessed sufficient wealth to enable her to pay us for the manufactures which she buys from us, and which nothing but want of money will prevent her from buying in larger quantities? Without resorting at present to the infallible laws of political economy, I will merely put it to the good sense of the British merchant, whether it is not as desirable to rank the French and Spaniards among our customers as other nations; and whether their custom is worth having, if they cannot pay us? To what was owing the surprising rise in our exports of 1802, but to orders from France, and with what other country was our intercourse formerly so lucrative?'

Facts which are within the knowlege of Mr. Lowe enable him very materially to strengthen his arguments in favour of that measure, which the dictates of humanity and the sense of our own burthens alike press on our consideration:

'The navigation of the whole world is passing into the hands of neutrals. They conduct not only the carrying trade of Europe, but they surpass the number of British shipping in the seas of India and China. The trade between Britain and North America, between North America and the West Indies, between Britain and Europe, from Memel to Constantinople—all is conducted by neutral shipping. Such are the consequences of a war of fifteen years.'

Mr. Lowe then considers the depression of the lower orders as a strong motive in favour of peace; and he states that 'by the official return made to the House of Commons in 1803, it appears that no less than 1,200,000 inhabitants of England, and Wales (one eighth of the whole population) were dependent on their parishes for relief. We have since had four years of war, and every year their number has increased.'

Who will dispute the truth of the next paragraph?

'If we look to the burdens of taxation on the middling classes, we shall find them scarcely less oppressive. The time is come when

instead of perpetuating the war-taxes, or of laying on new impositions, the attention of Government should be most anxiously directed to a gradual diminution of those taxes, (such as the tonnage duty) which threaten our national prosperity in its source. It is obvious, that the means of this diminution will never be found in war, but in peace the increase of our exports would supply a surplus of which the yearly augmentation would surprise ourselves, as was the case after the American war, and even in the short interval of peace in 1802.'

'It is in peace alone, (adds Mr. L.) that the interests of Ireland can be completely identified with those of England, and the evils removed which unhappily prevent that fertile island from adding to the energy of the empire.' We are glad to find that the city contains men who sympathise with Ireland; and we rejoice to see thus repelled (may the instances multiply!) the selfish and unfeeling spirit which has been imputed to this class of our community.

Of the dispositions of Bonaparte to make peace with us, Mr. Lowe thinks no doubt can be entertained. We wish that our limits would admit of our entering into the reasoning, founded on the nature and interests of this powerful person, by which the author shews that a peace would be likely to prove permanent.

In these times of violence, when public law is not only grossly outraged, but when its obligations are abjured and its authority is set at nought, by statesmen in that country which heretofore had prided itself on being its chief sanctuary, it is gratifying and consolatory to peruse a tract abounding in sentiments not less wise and just, as we conceive, than they are humane and benevolent. We should deem it an obligation conferred on the public, if this interesting and intelligent writer would print the latter part of his Inquiry in a separate form; and we do not think that the friends of peace could better promote their wishes, than by giving to it the widest possible circulation.

A fourth edition of this pamphlet has been published, with a few supplementary pages. Jo.

ART. XI. *Considerations on the Causes, Objects, and Consequences of the present War*, and on the Expediency, or the Danger of Peace with France. By William Roscoe, Esq. 3d Edition. 8vo. pp. 135. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

IT is remarked by Plato that the union of politics with philosophy is essential to the happiness of states: but this old-fashioned principle is discarded by some modern statesmen, who proscribe philosophy as the curse of the world. Their practice, however, has brought their system into disgrace

disgrace; and this nation begins to find that, by substituting passion for reason, by discarding all moral and physical calculation, and by listening to the clamours of interested in preference to the remonstrances of enlightened men, she has been plunged into unexampled difficulties. If, indeed, her eyes be not opened by the events which have occurred, her blindness is incurable and her destruction is sealed. As it might have been expected, after an avowed hostility to the principles of philosophic legislation, our camelion politics assumed every hue and colour of opinion to serve the occasion of the moment; and a long and disastrous contest has been prosecuted, for reasons which have changed like the figures of a magic lanthorn at the will of the shifter of the shades. At one time, we are at war for the *restoration of the Bourbon family* and for *the deliverance of Europe*, at another *for indemnity for the past and security for the future*; now we fight to preserve ourselves from *the infection of liberty*, and now because we have an *horror of despotism*; at one time we are at war to protect our allies and our commerce, and at another we are told that we have no occasion for either. Thus changing have been the *avowed* causes of the war; and if an object, *not* uniformly avowed, has regularly kept alive the flame, it is now so desperate that it ought to be completely abandoned. Some persons, however, fearful of this, have maintained the doctrine of *perpetual war*; while others have contended that any measure is lawful to ensure our success against such an enemy as Bonaparte.

Animated by a concern for our national character, as well as for our national prosperity, Mr. Roscoe endeavours to expose the futile reasons on which the war has been justified, to recall the attention of the country to the consequences which have resulted from its continuance, to review the pretexts for the attack on Denmark, and to shew that the apprehensions which many people entertain from peace with France are completely unfounded. Indeed, he pronounces the continuance of war to be an act of political suicide, and calls on the nation to endeavour by all constitutional means to avert its own destruction. '*If the war is to be continued*,' he says, 'it is now no longer a matter of exaggeration to assert that the sovereign of these realms is to contend for his crown; the people for their liberties and rights; for the soil in which their forefathers lie entombed.' Indignant at a certain description of persons among us, who feed on the credulity of the nation, whose only hope is in the continuance of war, and who for that reason endeavour to exacerbate the feelings of the people and to widen the differences, already too great, which subsist between us and the enemy, Mr. R.

stands forwards with great manliness and energy to resist the arguments adduced by these champions of perpetual hostility, to reprobate our misconduct, and to prove that even under present circumstances the wisest measure is peace.

As it was admitted at the rupture of the negociation in 1806, that the war was protracted rather for the interests of our ally the Emperor of Russia than for our own, it is fairly presumed that, since we are now released from all interference on behalf of his Imperial Majesty, a material obstacle to peace is removed: but, though political writers are induced to advert to the language of negociators, and to state papers, absolute reliance should not be placed on this evidence in discussing the real merits of peace or war. Sincerity is a virtue in no estimation with diplomatists; and as the *ruse de guerre* is with them in continual practice, we should not, without considering all the points embraced in the whole question, deduce inferences from their concessions and admissions. It is probable that the French suspected, in our negociation with them in 1806, that we were insincere; and that the large offers made at that period were designed to try us on that ground: in which case, we should not conclude that they are now prepared to meet us with similar advances. Though, therefore, it may be requisite, in taking a full view of the subject, to advert to the intercourse which we have had with Napoleon in the way of treaty and negociation, this retrospect may not afford certain data towards ascertaining the nature of the peace which we are likely in future to make with him: existing circumstances must regulate this point; and the great questions are, what is our actual situation, what are our prospects in the continuance of war, and what is the expediency or the danger of terminating it?

Since the last negotiation, a series of disasters befell our Imperial Ally which forced him to conclude at Tilsit a treaty with France; a treaty which, by the statements of Lord Hutchinson, was become absolutely necessary to Russia. This peace, observes Mr. R., 'operated like a sudden shock on the British Ministry; and in one of those paroxysms to which associations of men are no less liable than individuals, they eagerly grasped at the first idea that presented itself as likely to counteract its effect.' Unfortunately for our national honour as well as our national security, this measure (the effect indeed of 'a sudden shock,') was adopted with too little deliberation, *et malarum rerum audacia* fortitudo *vocatur.* [Sall.] It is scarcely credible that a government, which had been for many years at war for the express purpose of protecting the weak against the strong, and for maintaining those principles of public law which ought to be held sacred

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by nations, should suddenly resolve on a step which must be as revolting to the sense as to the conscience of every honest man, whose sense is not clouded by fear or whose conscience is not seared by interest. Mr. Roscoe thus represents the transaction:

'Amidst all the convulsions which Europe had experienced in consequence of the revolution in France, the kingdom of Denmark had, by the wise and temperate policy of her ruler, been in a great measure preserved from the fatal consequences of those commotions which had overturned governments of much greater political importance. This had been accomplished not by humiliating herself to any of the belligerent powers; not by espousing the cause of such of them as appeared for the moment to be successful; but by maintaining a firm, dignified, and undeviating independence, neither influenced by intrigues nor intimidated by threats. Her naval and military establishments, though not great, were respectable, and combining with the natural advantages of her situation, might justify her in the hopes of defending herself with success against any enemy that should attempt to infringe upon her neutrality. In order to defend this neutrality, the Danish government had, for a considerable time past, concentred its army on its continental frontiers; and it has been stated, that *this measure was adopted at the instance of Great Britain*, as being favourable to the protection of her commerce. In this situation the British fleet, with a large military force, arrived on the coast of Zealand, where the Danish government saw no reason to recognize them in any other character than that of friends and protectors. They were there joined by the German legion from the isle of Rugen; and Mr. Jackson the British resident at Copenhagen, according to instructions received from his court, demanded from the Danish Government the surrender of their navy to his Britannic Majesty, to be detained by him until the restoration of a general peace. This proposition was indignantly rejected; in consequence of which the troops were landed; and a proclamation was published by Lord Cathcart, the Commander in Chief, stating the motives and objects of such a proceeding, and threatening, that in case of resistance *the city of Copenhagen* should be desolated BY EVERY POSSIBLE MEANS OF DEVASTATION. Unprepared as the city then was, the Crown Prince gave orders that it should be defended to the last extremity. Of the Danish navy, not a ship was rigged, and the crews were absent. On the second day of September, the British troops commenced the attack, on three sides of the city, which continued for several days without intermission; during which 6500 shells were thrown into the town, which was soon on fire in upwards of thirty places. The timber yards were consumed; the powder magazine blew up; the steeple of the cathedral church was in a blaze, and fell amidst the continual shouts of the British troops.'

Having adverted historically to the attack on Copenhagen, the author proceeds to examine the arguments by which the Ministry have attempted to vindicate this measure:

'The first argument relied upon is "*the* CRUEL NECESSITY *which obliged the British sovereign to have recourse to acts of hostility against a nation, with which it was his most earnest desire to have established the relations of common interest and alliance.*" This passage contains the complete avowal of the principle upon which the British ministry acted. It presumes not only that the laws of morality and justice, and the rules of good faith which attach one individual or one nation to another, may be dispensed with from temporary motives, but that either of the parties has a right to judge of such motives, and to disregard those rules, whenever he may think proper. That this doctrine cannot be supported, must be apparent to every one, from the slightest observation of the consequences to which it must lead. At no period of society have mankind been so lost to the dignity of their nature and the interests of their association, as to avow it. Even states and sovereigns at war, under circumstances of the utmost exasperation, have rejected it with horror; and it may truly be said, that the establishment of such a maxim, even between belligerent powers, is all that is now wanting to complete the downfall of Europe, and destroy the hopes of mankind. Jealousy, hatred, assassination, poison, treachery, cruelty, and revenge, are its instruments, to be indiscriminately employed *as necessity requires*, and upon these grounds every crime and every atrocity may be equally justified.

'That such doctrines have of late been asserted in this country in the most open and profligate manner, is a dreadful symptom of that moral and intellectual depravity which precedes the fall of nations.'

In answer to the ground of justification from the information received respecting the designs of the French ruler on the Danish navy, Mr. R. allows the propriety of the interference of his Majesty's Ministers, but he denies that the sort of interference which they practised was such as the case required.

On the third reason, *the example of France,—the exigency of the crisis,—the magnitude of the danger*—and *the necessity of the exertion of Great Britain*, Mr. Roscoe thus comments:

'Thus then, after all the accusations poured out by this country against the French Ruler; his unbounded ambition, his disregard of alliances, his oppression of friendly and neutral states, it is openly confessed that we have ourselves adopted a similar course of conduct, and intend henceforth to contend with him in the race of iniquity.—The example of France is now no longer *a warning*, but *a pattern* for Great Britain; and after having so long condemned the policy of Bonaparte, we are at length become converts to it and confess it to be right. Apostates to the cause of virtue, independence, and integrity, which we pretend to have so long supported, we now openly acknowledge that it cannot contend with that of iniquity and oppression. The *dread* inspired into the nations of the world by the French, is to be rivalled by the dread inspired by the English; and it must be owned that our first effort, as exhibited in our attack upon Copenhagen, gives us a fair title to that "bad eminence,"

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which it seems is now become the great object of our ambition. Conquerors in open war have indeed been cruel and unsparing to their enemies; governments which have displayed an open hostility to more powerful states, or which, after repeated remonstrances, have persevered in maintaining alliances supposed to be injurious to a belligerent and successful power, have been changed or extinguished; but this is the first instance on record, where the capital of a long established nation has been surprised by the arms of a state in strict alliance, not only without notice and without remonstrance, but without the slightest charge of misconduct against either the sovereign or the people, and desolated *by every possible means of devastation*. It is impossible that any example in civilized history can be alleged to justify such an attack; and if a model is to be found, it can only be amongst the barbarian hordes of Africa.'

A great want of ordinary calculation seems to have been manifest in this affair. Not even Cocker could have been consulted. That our loss has been greater than our gain must be obvious to any compting-house clerk, to say nothing of national honour. Have we not, in mere physical strength, left more with the Danes to be thrown into the hands of the enemy than we have taken away; and have we not excited and given a momentum to their resentment which, without this attack, could never have existed?

——"What though the *Ships* be lost?
All is not lost; th' unconquerable will,
And study of revenge, immortal hate,
And courage never to submit or yield,
And what is else not to be overcome." (MILTON.)

Mr. Roscoe quits this unpleasant subject with considering the difference between the situation of this country at the close of the negociation in 1806, and at this period:

'At that time she asserted her honour and demonstrated her attachment to her ally by the most rigid fidelity and the most important sacrifices. The consequence was, as might be expected, a great accession of respectability to the national character. At present she is stained with the blood of her friends, whom she has attacked by surprize, *by every means of devastation*; the result of which has been a general cry of horror and indignation against her, from one extremity of Europe to the other. Thus from that high and dignified rank which she had till that fatal moment supported, she was, by one atrocious act, degraded in the eyes of the world beyond what language can express.'

The consequences of this precipitate measure have been the loss of our allies, and a state of affairs unprecedented and hazardous. In order to prepare us for acting with wisdom and firmness, it is essential to know the truth; and in this view, *he* is the friend of his country who presents us with

an undisguised and unvarnished account of our real situation;—an office which the present writer endeavours to execute:

'With a revenue which must necessarily diminish with the diminution of our commerce, occasioned by our total exclusion from the continent of Europe, we are now called upon for greater sacrifices, and have to bear alone the whole pressure of the war. Nor are these sacrifices confined to those of a pecuniary nature. In every contest that may henceforth take place between France and England, British courage alone must be employed, and British blood must flow. We are now effectually deprived of those powerful allies, who hitherto engaged the attention of our enemies, and rendered the continent the theatre of war; and if the two countries are again destined to meet in the field, the next battle that will be fought will most probably be fought on English ground. Flushed with their victories over the nations of the North, and eager to terminate a war which has for a series of years required from them such exertions, the armies of France are returning once more to the shores of the Ocean, impatient for an opportunity of closing their labours in the humiliation of these Islands and the destruction of their inhabitants; who, if they now fall, will fall without a friend to regret them, or the arm of an ally to be raised in their defence. This sudden and unexpected alteration in our prospects is the more to be regretted, as instead of exciting those wise, temperate, and precautionary measures, which the exigency of the occasion requires, it is regarded, by the blind and bigotted promoters of the war, with the most stupid indifference, or the most ill-timed and preposterous confidence; as if these Islands had been placed by Providence beyond the sphere of human calamity, or as if their inhabitants had merited by their virtues the particular favour of Heaven.'

After having painted our situation in terrific and we hope exaggerated colours, Mr. R. proceeds to brighten the prospect by endeavouring to shew that eternal warfare is not necessary; and that a peace is still attainable, even such an one as will secure the honour and assist the prosperity of the country, provided that we seek peace in the true spirit of peace, and refuse to listen to those writers and orators whose study is to promote an irreconcileable enmity between us and the present Ruler of France;

'We may have it yet, in all probability, if we can subdue our exasperated passions, artificially blown into a flame by those whose interest and whose gratification it is to hurry us on to our ruin; men who are lost to every feeling of the true interests of their country, and who, in case its constitution should be subverted by a foreign power, would be the first, not only to testify their implicit submission to any government, however tyrannical it might be, but to direct its vengeance against those genuine friends of liberty and truth, who would, under every change of exterior circumstances, remain unchanged,

changed, and who, after having defended their principles in their lives, would seal them by their blood.'

In this declamation, as in some other places, Mr. R. evinces too much of the feelings of a party-writer, and points his period with that vindictive recrimination which is more animated than discreet: but his subsequent pages are more temperate, and contain some judicious arguments to enforce the policy of peace. Here, though he necessarily re-traces the ground occupied by the writer of the pamphlet noticed in our preceding article, the spirit with which his remarks are enforced gives them a new interest. He reminds us that Peace is the element of our prosperity; and that, though 'in a state of war Britain has her equals, in a state of peace she has none.' He combats the idea that France is naturally disposed to become an eminent naval power; and he is of opinion that an advantageous treaty might be concluded with that empire in its present state of greatness. Considering the real foundation of our national strength, it is asserted that 'the ratio of our increase in a state of peace must, independent of our present superiority, exceed that of France, in a degree proportioned to the superiority of our resources;' and we are cautioned not to provoke France to a naval rivalry with us, but sedulously to aim at those victories of peace which are "not less renowned than those of war."

'Notwithstanding the present appearances of increased hostility between Great Britain and France, there is reason to hope that by a seasonable and temperate exposition of the views of the two countries, the foundation might be laid for that state of tranquillity which is so greatly the interest of both.'—

'Instead, therefore, of devoting our exertions, exhausting our resources, and risking our very existence, in a fruitless and destructive contest, let us turn our attention to those incalculable sources of prosperity and independence which have hitherto been so unaccountably and so fatally neglected. Let us attend more to ourselves and less to our neighbours; convinced that if we had devoted one tenth part of those immense sums which have been so lavishly expended in foreign subsidies and fruitless expeditions, in promoting the arts, the agriculture, and the internal œconomy of the country, we should have raised ourselves to a justly merited eminence, and should have added to our real strength, importance, and respectability.'

We are not surprized that this pamphlet has obtained an extensive sale *, because its matter is highly interesting, and that matter is on the whole very ably discussed. As we have perused it with much satisfaction, we hope that it will make a deep im-

* A 4th edition has been advertized.

pression. It is time for the nation to awake from its political delusion; and to be assured that its honour, prosperity, and welfare cannot be more effectually promoted than by wisdom, virtue, and peace.

Moy.

ART. XII. *The Progresses and Public Processions of Queen Elizabeth*: among which are interspersed other Solemnities, Public Expenditures, and remarkable Events, during the Reign of that illustrious Princess: to which are subjoined some of the early Progresses of King James: now first printed from original MSS. of the Times, or collected from scarce Pamphlets, &c.; illustrated with historical notes, by John Nichols, F. S. A. Edinb. and Perth. Vol. III. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nichols and Son.

SEVERAL years have elapsed since the first and second volumes of this laborious collection were presented to notice. The reference below* will direct our readers to the account which we then gave of the work; where they will find a general view of its design, with some extracts and remarks; and the purchasers of this volume will perceive that the diligent editor has complimented our Review, by inserting a portion of that article in the preface to his present publication. In this preface, after acknowlegements to several persons who had assisted the undertaking, some additions to the former volumes are offered. Numerous are the relations of *Progresses* which follow, some short indeed, and merely as they are specified by books of church-wardens, &c. but all of them sufficient to assure us that the good queen's reign was a bustling one, directed both by policy and amusement. The excursions were not chiefly made to very remote parts of the kingdom; and many around the metropolis might be considered as *visits*, though sometimes extended through two or three days, or more.

A very large account occurs, in the Latin language, of the queen's reception and entertainment at Cambridge in the year 1564, consisting of 150 pages and upwards; and we are told that it is here transcribed from a MS. purchased by the editor, at Dr. Askew's sale, in the year 1786. It is by no means an uninteresting article. Among the orations, the poetry, &c. which are here produced, some subjects of disputation are recorded. Of these, one question is "*Major est Scripturæ quam Ecclesiæ Autoritas*†?" Another is an inquiry 'whether the civil magistrate has a right to interfere in ecclesiastical affairs?' The debate is conducted with animation; and

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* See M. Review for August, 1789, Vol. lxxxi. p. 131.

† "Is the authority of Scripture greater than that of the Church?"

though

though some of the speakers appear to have been papists in heart, the protestant cause obtains the victory.

We find the queen at Coventry in the year 1565. "The mayor delivered the mace into her hands, and so kneeled down; and then the recorder presented unto her majesty a purse, supposed to be worth 20 marks, and in it about 100l. in angels, which her grace accepting was pleased to say to her lords, "it was a good gift, 100l. in gold, I have but few such gifts." To which the mayor answered boldly, "If it please your grace, there is a great deal more in it." "What is that?" said she. "It is," said he, "the hearts of all your loving subjects." "We thank you, Mr. Mayor," said she; "it is a great deal more indeed."—If her majesty did not frequently receive particular donations so bountiful, the new year's gifts, and others which occasionally occurred, amounted to a very large sum: but they might be equalled, perhaps exceeded, by those which it was thought requisite for her to distribute.

Elizabeth's reception and entertainment during the week which she spent at Oxford, in 1566, were equally splendid with any others: orations, dissertations, Latin sermons, disputations, and poetic effusions, were supplied in abundance, and the acting of plays was not suffered to be wanting. This narrative is accompanied by a large map of Oxford, 1566, together with seventeen plates of Colleges and Halls.

It is not practicable for us to enumerate the multifarious topics which this volume offers to attention; but it will be readily supposed that, while many instruct or amuse, some are less worthy of regard. It appears to us from these collections, and from general history, that this great queen lived in jeopardy as to her personal safety; and that her fears and apprehensions on the subject, notwithstanding her magnanimity, if too frequently, were yet too justly excited. Honoured and beloved by the greater part of her subjects, she had in the popish party adversaries who were bigotted, virulent, and implacable; while others, not less dangerous, were ambitious, totally unprincipled, and prepared for *any party*, or any measures, which might tend to gratify their wishes. A letter (in French) from the queen of England to Henry IV. of France, after his conversion, is said to be given 'from the original, in cardinal Mazarin's state-papers, in the library of the duke of Brunswick.' It is short, but spirited, and worth preservation; being honourable to the memory of Elizabeth, as proving that amid dangers, difficulties, and fears, on every side, and notwithstanding strong prejudices, great mistakes, and bad counsels, she was faithful to the protestant cause, and to the welfare of her subjects. Some verses on

the queen's death occupy 230 pages; they manifest great labour, as well as acquaintance both with the *Latin* and the *Greek*. The sumptuary laws, published and enforced in the year 1580, reduced enormous ruffs to more moderate dimensions, and restricted swords to the length of three feet. "The French ambassador," we are informed in a letter of lord Talbot, "(*Mounswer Mouiser*) ridinge to take the ayer, in his returne cam thorow Smithfeld, and ther, at the barrs, was steayed by thos offisers that sitteth to cut sourds, by reason his raper was longer than the statute. He was in a great feaurie and dreawe his raper. In the meane season my lord Henry Seamore cam and so steayed the matt^{r}. Hir Matie. is greatlie ofended with the oficers, in that they wanted judgment."

Without farther regard to the *Threno-Thriambeuticon*,* and various other particulars, we must now take our leave of this illustrious queen, and proceed to a few brief remarks relative to the king, her less deserving successor. A narrative of his '*departure* from Edenbrough, 'till his *receving* at London,' is printed by Thomas Creede, for Thomas Millington, 1603. It is not an insignificant performance, but manifests sense and spirit, and will amuse and inform many readers. Its language also is rather superior to that which prevailed in those days, and its observations are occasionally smart, lively, and instructive; though its general air, according with the times, is that of *prerogative royal*.—The description of the reception and entertainment of *James* I. at the house of 'Maister Oliver Cromwell' is striking and impressive, when viewed in connection with those great events which, in the lapse of several following years, arose in that family. *Maister* Oliver treated his royal guest, with all his numerous attendants, and indeed all the surrounding neighberhood, in that generous and sumptuous manner which placed his house among some of the most distinguished on that memorable occasion.

Whether the experiment, as to strength and courage, which on a visit to the Tower the king and prince were prompted to make between the lion and the English 'mastiffe dog,' did them honour, or was an act of unnecessary cruelty, we will not peremptorily determine: but in an encounter with three of the latter, in succession, the lion was victorious, though much injured. 'The king (says the writer,) perceived the lion greatly to excede the dog in strength, but nothing in noble heart and courage.' It is sensibly added; 'the lion hath

* Such is the style of the *Cambridge lamentations* on the death of her majesty.

not

not any peculiar or proper kinde of fight, as hath the dog, beare, or bull, but only a ravenous kind of surprizing for prey.'

It was in the year 1615, that the king was so highly delighted at Cambridge by the comedy called *Ignoramus*, acted in his presence; and it is not surprising that a ridicule of the common law should be acceptable to him, who was much more disposed to favour laws enacted by the sole authority of the Roman emperors. Such will be the case with arbitrary and tyrannical princes; while those of benevolent sentiments will have a prevalent respect for the benefit and welfare of the subject.

Here we check *our Progress*, and can only add that, besides engravings already mentioned, this volume presents to us a portrait of lady Jane Grey,—a view and plan of Elvetham, (or Eltham),—a decanter ornamented by queen Elizabeth,—a plan of the town and harbour of Dover, temp. Elizabeth,—and various Autographs, worked in the letter-press.

Hi.

ART. XIII. *Picturesque Tour through Spain.* By Henry Swinburne, Esq. Embellished with twenty Engravings, by Watts, Medland, Angus, Mitan, &c. Folio, 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Orme.

THIS work is dedicated to Lord Holland by Mr. Orme, the publisher, but he has given no preface, introduction, or advertisement, to explain in what way he obtained possession of the drawings from which the copper-plate engravings here exhibited were made, nor at what time the views by the late Mr. Swinburne were taken. From turning to our account of this gentleman's "Travels through Spain in the Years 1775 and 1776," (see M.R. Vol. lxi. p. 138,) and comparing our extracts with the letter-press of the Tour before us, it appears to us that the descriptive part has little of novelty, and that the embellishments constitute the chief merit of this undertaking. The short notices, in English and French, prefixed to the plates, may probably be the work of the editor: but the long details at the end seem to be copied from Mr. Swinburne's travels long ago published. Surely the editor should not have offered a volume of this nature to the world without explanation; and have worked up old matter into the form of a new Picturesque Tour, with the date of the year 1806, which had been printed in a less ostentatious form nearly thirty years ago. A *recent* account of such a country as Spain would have been very acceptable: but we sustain a disappointment, when, after having attended the traveller through the most celebrated cities and towns belonging to the Spanish monarchy,

we

we discover that we have been listening to an old instead of a new relation. If, however, we cannot approve this mode of vamping up old materials, we must do justice to Mr. Orme by stating that he has employed able artists in making the copper-plates from Mr. Swinburne's drawings, and that the stroke-engravings are beautifully executed. The subjects of them are *Burgos*, in Old Castile, *the Vale of Marol*, in Valencia, *the Bridge of Perpignan*, in Roussillon, *Seville*, in Andalusia, *Duenas*, in Old Castile, *Granada*, *Miranda del Ebro*, *Montesa*, *the Generaliffe* or *Alhambra*, a palace of the kings of Granada, the *Pass of Bellegarde*, the ruins of the *Castle of La Puebla*, in Biscay, *Gate of the Cid at Valencia*, *Barcelona*, *Ruins of the castle of Las Navas*, in Andalusia, *Madrid*, *Tower of Almenara*, *the Moorish Queen's private apartment in the Alhambra*, *Malaga*, *Oropesa*, and *Toledo*. These views cannot fail to convey a tolerable idea of the position, character, and external appearance of Spanish towns and edifices, and of the scenery of this truly picturesque country.

As the short accounts of places prefixed to the engravings may possibly be more recent than the letter-press at the end, which professedly constitutes the Tour, we shall venture to transcribe the sketch of *Malaga:*

'The ancient city of Malaga, seated on the shore of the Mediterranean sea, is a fortified sea port in the kingdom of Granada, 266 miles to the south of Madrid. That it was founded in a remote period, cannot be questioned; and the antiquaries affirm that it was built by the Phœnicians 800 years before the christian æra. It stands at the foot of a very steep mountain, upon which are two old castles, one which crowns the summit of the mountain, is called GIBRALFARO, and was built in the year 1280, by a moorish governor. The other castle, called ALCAZABA, stands but a little above the city, and is very strong of its kind, having a double wall, flanked by a hundred and ten towers.

'Malaga is a bishop's see. Its cathedral is a modern building of white marble, and deemed one of the handsomest in Spain. It is in reality a stupendous pile, begun by Philip II. while married to Mary queen of England, and their united arms are still to be seen over the door. It is said by some to be as large as St. Paul's, in London.

'This populous and well built city is of a circular form, surrounded by a double wall, with stately towers, and nine gates. On one side the sea washes its walls, and on the other runs the little river *Quadalquivirite*, over which there is a handsome bridge. A good harbour renders this city a considerable place of trade, and it is much frequented by the English, who send many ships hither annually for cargoes of wine and fruit. The port is rendered safe and commodious by means of a fine mole and quay 700 yards in length, with stairs for taking water, and several short stout pil-

lars of jasper, to which ships are made fast by hawsers. It has also a chapel upon it, for the accommodation of sea faring people.

'The country and grounds all around being covered with vines, and the greatest variety of delicious fruits, yield a very luxuriant and beautiful prospect both from the land and the sea. Its choice wines, raisins, oranges, lemons, almonds, and figs, are well known from the great quantities imported into England. Other foreign nations likewise trade largely at this port, whence it enjoys a considerable share of opulence. The wine we term Mountain, which was once in considerable repute in this country, and of which the consumption was consequently great, though of late other white wines have become more fashionable amongst us, is the produce of the vineyards on the hilly country in the vicinity of this city. Their cultivation requires but little trouble, for the vines are planted in rows, without props; the intervals are ploughed with oxen once a year, and the shoots are pruned, which is almost all the dressing employed on them. Formerly ten thousand butts of wine were shipped from this port every year; but the quantity is *now* (we are not told to what period this *now* refers) considerably diminished. The grapes of which the choicest raisins are made have the stem half cut through, and in this state they are left four days to dry and candy in the sun, before they are finally gathered.

'The mountains that surround the town, though they much increase the beauty of the prospect, render the place insufferably hot during the greater part of the year. To an unreflecting stranger, too, the narrowness of its streets might be deemed an inconvenience; but this, on the contrary, is an advantage, for it renders the current of air through them more brisk, and admits less sun. In winter, however, it is a delightful retreat for those who wish to enjoy summer all the year round, as you may here find the gardens adorned with roses in full bloom in the month of January, and have the sense of smell regaled with the fragrance of the orange groves.'

We know not whether we may regard this account as penned by Mr. Swinburne: but, whoever was the author, it conveys information, and therefore may not be unacceptable to most readers.

The English and French notices prefixed to the plates are not always exact copies of each other.

Mo-y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1808.

HISTORY *and* ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 14. *Archæologia Græca*, or the Antiquities of Greece; being an Account of the Manners and Customs of the Greeks; chiefly designed to illustrate the Greek Classics, by explaining Words and Phrases according to the Rites and Customs to which they refer.

To

To which are prefixed a brief History of the Grecian States, and biographical Sketches of the principal Greek writers. By the Rev. John Robinson, of Christ's College, Cambridge, Master of the Free Grammar School at Ravenstonedale, in Westmoreland. 8vo. pp. 618. 12s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

MR. Robinson impresses his reader with no mean opinion of his erudition and industry, by enumerating the works consulted by him with a view to the present compilation: viz. Potter's *Archæologia Græca*, the Travels of Anacharsis, Lakemacher, Lambert Bos with Leisner's notes, de Pauw's Dissertations, and Cragius *de Republicâ Lacedæmoniorum*. In making out this catalogue, however, we doubt whether he has done himself complete justice, for he appears to us to be under considerable obligations to a book which he has entirely omitted to mention; we mean Dr. Harwood's Grecian Antiquities, published, in 1801, as an *avowed* abridgement from the too prolix treatise of Archbishop Potter. The disposition of the chapters is indeed somewhat different, but their internal arrangement and contents are almost precisely the same; and Mr. Robinson makes a few alterations in the language of his precursor, of which we shall give one specimen. The chapter on Military Armour and Weapons is thus opened by Dr. Harwood: "According to mythology, Mars was the first who wore armour. He employed Vulcan, a smith in the Isle of Lemnos, so eminent as to be deified and honoured with the protection of his own trade; although the people of Lemnos were afterwards branded with infamy for so destructive an invention; hence they are called Σιντιες, (Homer's Iliad α) and their country Σιντνς; (Apoll. Arg. 2.)." Mr. Robinson more elegantly writes: '*Mythologists inform us* that Mars was the first *who put on armour*, and who perhaps for that reason was called the god of war. He is said to have employed *for that purpose* Vulcan, a smith in the Isle of Lemnos, so eminent in his art that he was deified, and honoured with the protection of his own trade. But the Lemnians were represented as the common enemies of mankind, and branded with infamy for so destructive an invention, and hence they were called Σιντιες (Hom. Il. α) and their country was denominated Σιντνς (Apollon. Argon. II.)' We have transcribed as far as the quotation from Apollonius, for the purpose of remarking that Mr. Robinson's *figures* are Roman, while those of Dr. Harwood are Arabic, which throws a difference on the face of the work: but, allowing for that difference, and for variations of style similar to those which we have mentioned, this chapter, and many others in the volume, are exactly the same.

An additional book is introduced, which relates exclusively to the Government and Customs of Sparta: but, great part of it is to be found *passim* in Harwood, who extracted the matter from Potter, incidentally depicting the Lacedæmonian manners and laws, while those of Athens formed the leading subject of their descriptions.

In the Biographical Sketch of Greek writers prefixed by Mr. Robinson, we were a little surprised at the omission of the celebrated names of Archilochus, Alcman, Theopompus, Demetrius Phalereus, Agathon, and others. Their works, indeed, are lost: but this

this reason does not justify the author's silence in regard to Tyrtæus, Longinus, Callistratus, Callimachus, Athenæus, and Theophrastus. Perhaps Mr. R. thinks that they do not fall under the description of *principal* writers. Still, we confess ourselves at a loss to discover a satisfactory reason for excluding the whole class of philosophers; nor does Mr. R. inform us by what means Plato, Aristotle, Epictetus, and Antoninus Pius, have forfeited the honour of his notice. This omission reminds us of the publisher who announced a *complete* edition of Shakspeare's works in weekly numbers, but stopped short, without having included the tragedies of Hamlet, Lear, Macbeth, and Othello. Den.

Art. 15. *The History of the Town of Malmesbury*, and of its ancient Abbey, the Remains of which magnificent Edifice are still used as a Parish Church, together with Memoirs of eminent Natives, and other distinguished Characters, who were connected with the Abbey or Town, (embellished with Engravings.) By the late Rev. J. M. Moffat, of Malmesbury. 8vo. pp. 249. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

In this work, the author has endeavoured to blend entertainment with dry antiquarian information; and, by occasional appropriate remarks and illustrations, to make it more interesting than it might otherwise have proved. After a concise history of the Town, an elaborate account of the celebrated Abbey is given; affording a view of monachism from its commencement, and various particulars respecting the different modes of architecture in religious edifices. In the section relating to the Borough, we have a statement of the rise, progress, and decline of the feudal system; and after a few extracts from Domesday Book, we are supplied with some explanatory matter, extracted chiefly from Blackstone and Wyndham's Wiltshire. In discussing the various subjects contained in this volume, the author has succeeded in interspersing much miscellaneous, yet connected information; his researches are elaborate, his reading is extensive, and his judgment is correct. He seemed to be desirous of omitting nothing that would leave his book incomplete, and the able manner in which it is executed shews the success of his endeavours. To those persons who wish to obtain information respecting Malmesbury, we therefore recommend this publication, as one from which they will receive considerable gratification. W.Re-s.

Art. 16. *History and Antiquities of Stratford-upon-Avon*, comprising a Description of the Collegiate Church, the Life of Shakspeare, and Copies of several Documents relating to him and his Family, never before printed; with a biographical Sketch of other eminent Characters, natives of, or who have resided in, Stratford. To which is added, a particular Account of the Jubilee, celebrated at Stratford in Honour of our immortal Bard. With eight Engravings. By R. B. Wheler. 8vo. pp. 229. 7s. Ward, Stratford. Longman and Co., London.

Much useful information is here conveyed respecting the place which the work professes to describe; and so far the reader will find himself rewarded in the perusal: but of the arrangement we cannot speak much in commendation; the articles are in an ap-

parently confused order, and no table of contents elucidates the plan: the insertion of Latin quotations in the text, however explanatory, will to common readers have a forbidding aspect; and the monumental inscriptions, with the scarce documents relating to Shakspeare and his family, cannot in general be very interesting. Were a new edition required, we would recommend that those parts which are universally acceptable should be methodically arranged, and that such as concern more particularly individual families, and antiquaries, should be printed in a smaller type in an appendix.

W. Re-s.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Right Rev. Dr. Beilby Porteus, Lord Bishop of London*, on the Subject of his Citation of the Writer before the Spiritual Court; on an unfounded Charge respecting certain Doctrines contained in his Visitation Discourse, preached before Dr. Gretton, Archdeacon of Essex, at Danbury, July 8, 1806*. By Francis Stone, M. A. F. A. S. Rector of Cold Norton, Essex. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Eaton.

We have heard of some clergymen who, in performing the offices of devotion prescribed in the book of common prayer, consider themselves only as readers, and not as persons bound to an adoption of the sentiments which this public form expresses: but we never met with so unequivocal an example of the kind as in the instance of Mr. Stone: who not only declares his disbelief of the prominent doctrines of the liturgy, and consequently avows his reading in the desk to be a mere matter of form, but maintains that the *posterior* engagement, into which he solemnly entered with his ordaining Bishop, rescinded the *prior* subscription to the articles. As far as argument is concerned, he makes out his case; but, if he be logically right, must he not be practically wrong? If he be a rigid unitarian, believing in the proper humanity of Christ, ought he to be the conductor of a trinitarian service? To read the Litany in the desk, and then to ascend the pulpit, and to tell his congregration that the worship of Christ is idolatry, is a kind of farce which ought not to be played off before christians assembled for the serious purposes of devotion and instruction. As to the prudence of the Bishop of London, in citing Mr. Stone into the spiritual court for his visitation sermon, we have our doubts; yet we cannot entirely approve the defence which is here made. If, however, conscience be put out of the question, it must be allowed that Mr. Stone takes very strong ground. He quotes the words of the engagement which he made with the Bishop at his ordination, to prove that, in *preaching*, nothing but his individual persuasion of the true sense of scripture was to guide him. One of the questions proposed to him in the ordination service runs thus: "Are you determined out of the scriptures to instruct the people committed to your charge, and to teach nothing, as required of necessity to eternal salvation, but that which, *you shall be persuaded*, may be concluded and proved by scripture;" to which the answer is; "I am so per-

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N. S. p. 333.

suaded,

suaded, and have so determined, by God's grace." On this basis, Mr. Stone contends that he is liberated from the authority of the articles, and of the Bishops in the province of preaching; and that he is at full liberty to declare his *own individual sense* of scripture, without attending to its agreement or dissonance with the doctrines read in the desk. He observes:

'These engagements, my lord, liberate me from all obligation to consider, whether the doctrines advanced in my visitation discourse be agreeable or disagreeable to certain theological positions maintained in "some one," or in "more of the" thirty-nine articles: I deny their authority over my conscience, in points of faith, of human invention, or interpretation.—Thus liberated, I have no more concern with them than with the reveries of the Koran, or with the fables of the Talmud. It is futile, therefore, to accuse me of "revolting from, impugning, or depraving" them, as I am justified by these my solemn engagements with my ordaining Bishop, to treat them as so many non-entities, as far as respects my instruction "of the people committed to my charge,"—and to be solicitous only to teach them what I am persuaded or convinced is "agreeable to the word of God," or gospel truth, and that alone.'

After this vindication of his *christian liberty*, Mr. Stone proceeds to inform the Bishop how he himself should have acted had the case been reversed; stating the sort of language which, had he been a Bishop, he should have employed, against an unitarian preacher in the established church; and he concludes with subscribing himself 'his lordship's injured fellow servant *in the Lord*.' Mo-y.

Art. 18. *A Collection of Evidences for the Divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ.* By the Rev. A. Freston, A.M. Rector of Edgeworth, Glocester. 8vo. pp. 86. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

This work is intended as an antidote to the Unitarian doctrine preached by Mr. Stone in his visitation discourse*; and after so bold an attack on the Trinitarian faith by one of the members of the national church, we are not surprized that some champion should appear to check the heresy so exultingly avowed from spreading among the established clergy. The rector of Edgeworth, like the rector of Cold-Norton, quotes the sixth article,—which declares that "whatsoever is not *read* in Holy Scripture, nor may be proved thereby, is not to be required as an article of faith,"—as containing a wise principle in the settlement of christian doctrine; and he proposes to examine Holy Scripture for this purpose: but in the very *prospectus* of his undertaking, he introduces a term which certainly is not to be *read* in scripture, *very God of very God*, and gives himself unnecessary trouble, (or, as the lawyers would say, travels out of the record,) by adducing the testimony of the Fathers, when the question is what can or cannot be proved *solely by the Scriptures*. The matter is truly important, and ought to be closely argued.

Mr. F. comprises the substance of the evidences, which he produces in favor of the divinity of Christ, under six heads:

* See Rev. Vol. liii. N.S. p. 333.

'Under the First, I shall comprise (he says) the Description of the Messiah in the Old Testament.

'Secondly.—I shall bring forward our Saviour's Assertions respecting himself; Assertions totally inconsistent with the humility and piety of his character, if he were any other than *very God of very God.*

'Thirdly.—I shall adduce from Scripture, and from History, the Opinions of his Friends concerning him.

'Fourthly.—I shall take advantage of the Concessions of his Enemies.

'Fifthly.—I shall endeavour to answer some Objections which have been made to this doctrine.

'Sixthly —The sixth Section will contain a brief recapitulation of the Argument, or Synopsis of the whole Work.'

Among the concessions of enemies, the Koran is quoted: but surely a reference to this book is unhappy; for here it is expressly said that "God is not the third of three." (See Sale's Koran, Chap. 5.) *We* lay no stress on this evidence: but an author, when he quotes, should be cautious. We suspect that some of Mr. F.'s testimonies, and some of his answers to objections, will excite a smile in Mr. Stone, and in other unitarians: but we wish not to make ourselves a party in the controversy, and shall only say of the reasoning in this pamphlet, *valeat quantum valere potest.* Mo.y.

Art. 19. *Parochial Discourses for the Information of the Common People*, upon the Advent of Christ, and other Events relative to his Mission and Character. To which are added two Assize Sermons, preached at the Lent and Summer Assizes holden at Chelmsford, 1796. By W. H. Reynell, M. A. Minister of Hornchurch, Essex. 8vo. pp. 227. 5s. Sewed, Cadell and Davies.

Professing to write for the benefit of the uneducated, this author has endeavoured 'without affectation of novelty, of fine writing or of learning, to communicate by common place arguments, taken from scriptural history, as it is read in our English translation of the Bible,' a practical knowlege of the religion which they profess. He undertakes particularly to illustrate the connection which subsists between the two parts of divine revelation; and we agree with him in thinking that this is very necessary to a clear elucidation of the sacred scriptures: but we are also of opinion that, in the execution of such a task, especially for the advantage of the common people, we ought to guard against the influence of fancy and system, which often seduce commentators to bring texts and circumstances together, that have not the smallest reference or relation to each other. The history of the Bible is rather perplexed than elucidated by this conduct, into which Mr. R. is too often betrayed in these parochial discourses. We shall quote an instance or two: 'When Balaam says, "let me die the death of the righteous!" to whom do his words more directly apply than to the Saviour dying on the cross?' Can, however, the common people who read the scriptures have any idea that these words refer either directly or indirectly to the Messiah; or that Balaam, in wishing that "his latter end might be like

like the righteous," had any reference to the Saviour dying on the cross?—Mr. R., in the sermon on Innocents' day, very correctly states to his readers that the expression in the Evangelists, "*then was fulfilled*," does not always mean direct accomplishment, but rather refers to circumstances of correspondence or description; and if this fact be admitted, we ought not, without any warranty from the N. T., to be precipitate in converting every circumstance in the O. T. into a type or a prophecy. Mr. R. notices the silence of our Lord and his apostles on the murder of the Innocents by Herod, and observes that there is nothing in the Gospel like allusion to their catastrophe, except we conjecture that our Saviour adverted to it, in saying "suffer the little children to come unto me, for of such is the kingdom of heaven:" but we must ask, can plain people who read this passage with its context imagine such a reference? We may venture to say that it is utterly impossible.—It is added in the same sermon that there 'is perhaps a presumed allusion in the epistle for Innocents' day, (Rev. XIV.) where they are stiled "the first fruits unto God and to the Lamb," and being there described as eminently blessed and found without fault before the throne of God, we have encouragement to believe, that all children who die before they arrive at an age of the knowlege of good and evil, are received into the bosom of their Father who is in heaven: which takes away every scruple concerning the old topic of dispute, original sin.' This doctrine can be deduced from other premises, if the passage, which is '*perhaps a presumed allusion* to the murdered Innocents,' be found in fact to allude to others.

As calculated to render common hearers acquainted with the historic circumstances to which reference is made in the offices and festivals of the Church, these sermons will be found useful. The preacher cautions them against considering the *formal* part of the rite of baptism as a spell or charm, and counsels them to be properly solicitous for the religious education of their children, as well as for their own improvement in divine knowlege by the study of the Scriptures.

The two assize sermons annexed have for their title '*Law dependent upon Religion*,' and clearly establish this important principle. **Mo-y.**

Art. 20. *A Second Defence of Revealed Religion*, in two Sermons, preached in the Chapel Royal, St. James's. By Richard Watson, D.D. Lord Bishop of Landaff. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

Judging from mere internal evidence, we should never have conjectured that these sermons were the compositions of the ingenious and philosophical Dr. Watson; and they are so very inferior to his former productions, that we could almost doubt the testimony of the title-page which assigns them to his pen. Indeed, we do not remember to have any where met with argumentation more lame and inefficient. In his defence both of Revealed Religion, (the subject of the first discourse,) and of the doctrine of Atonement, or moral substitution, (the subject of the second,) he evinces logical quibbling instead of sound reasoning, and affords rather matter of triumph than of mortification to the Infidel and the Socinian. The Divine

Mission of our Blessed Saviour can be more satisfactorily supported than by such logic as the Bishop of Landaff employs in the following passage:

'Many Heathens and many Jews, contemporaries with Jesus and his Apostles, embraced Christianity on its first promulgation; the descendants of these men, in a direct line from father to son, may amount to about seventy persons: ask one of these descendants why he believes the Christian Religion to be true—he will answer, his father believed it to be true, his grandfather believed it to be true, all his progenitors, amounting to about seventy persons, believed it to be true; but that the first of them did not merely believe, he knew it to be true, for he had been an eye witness of the miracles wrought by Jesus, or by the Apostles in the name of Jesus.

'To this an unbeliever may reply—Ask a Jew why he believes the Christian Religion to be false—he will answer, his father believed it to be faise, his grandfather believed it to be false, all his progenitors, amounting to about seventy persons, believed it to be false; but that the first of them did not merely believe, he knew it to be false. I deny the conclusion; the seventieth progenitor of the Jew did not know the Christian Religion to be false, for he did know that Jesus and his Apostles wrought miracles; and no religion can be false which has real unquestioned miracles for its foundation.'

We cannot perceive with what shadow of propriety the Bishop can deny the conclusion from the Jew's premises, after having rashly ventured (which the cause does not require) to erect an argument in favour of Christianity on the descent of faith from father to son. As far as these kinds of assertions avail, (and they avail nothing,) the unbeliever of the present day has equal reason for maintaining that the regular descent of infidelity from one Jew to another is as valid an argument against Christianity, as the regular descent of faith from one Christian to another is an argument in its favour. What would be said of a similar adduction of the truth of Mohammedanism?—We think, also, that the infidel will smile at the Bishop when he asks, "who can say that the occurrence of miracles in particular ages are not a part of an infinite chain of causes and effects?' for this is in fact asking whether Miracles be natural events.

On reviewing his first sermon in the course of delivering the second, Bishop Watson pronounces it to be 'close and logical argumentation:' but we can find little of this quality in either discourse. That his explanation of the vicarious sacrifice is laboured, and as unsatisfactory to himself as it must be to all his readers, the conclusion will shew:

'You perceive (brethren) from what has been said, that the opinion of the speaker *leans* to that of those who give a literal rather than a figurative interpretation to those texts which represent Christ—as "laying down his life for his sheep—as purchasing the Church with his blood—as putting away sin by the sacrifice of himself." There are many other men, both in this and in other countries, of great piety, probity, and learning, who reject a literal interpretation as irreconcileably hostile to the justice, the benignity, the holiness of the Almighty.'

Though

Though Dr. W. endeavours to *lean* towards the doctrine of Atonement, he seems to take this obliquity against his will, and as an orthodox divine he acquits himself with no success. Even with all his logic, he makes little progress with his *free* grace, clogged by *previous* and *subsequent* conditions.

Mo-y.

LAW.

Art. 21. *Some Observations on the Constitution and Forms of Proceeding of the Court of Session in Scotland*; with Remarks on the Bill now (lately) depending in the House of Lords for its Reform. By John Peter Grant, Esq. Advocate and Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 135 5s. Clarke and Sons. 1807.

If any persons have an interest in retaining in force an oppressive law or burthensome usage, we hear of nothing but the wisdom of our ancestors, and the danger of innovation: but on other occasions the same persons violate the maxims of these same ancestors with very little scruple. Our good forefathers thought that measures and regulations which respected our internal concerns were matters of the first importance, but the fashion has of late much changed in this respect; and it has become the mode to represent the pains which statesmen bestow on such discussions as no better than mere inaction. The learned gentleman before us is no convert to this doctrine, but highly applauds the late proposition for a reform in the Court of Session in Scotland. We have already had occasion to advert to the grounds of this great regulation, (see Rev. Vol. liii. p. 440.) which are here stated in a very masterly way; and the whole tract shews the liberal mind, the philosophical spirit, and the respectable attainments of the author. One feature of this measure, as proposed by Lord Grenville, if our information be correct, is omitted in Lord Eldon's bill, (which supersedes that of Lord G.,) namely that of trial by jury in civil causes; an omission which our habits and notions would have led us to regret, even if we had not perused Mr. Grant's observations on this point, which are very happy and forcible. Speaking of it, he thus concludes his pamphlet:

'The trial by jury in civil causes possesses so many, and such obvious advantages, as to require, one should think, very little illustration. Some of its advantages for determining a particular cause, it has been already attempted to point out. But these are very far from constituting all that it possesses. Those it produces in a political view are of yet more extensive importance. Not only do a certain number of plain men appear better adapted for determining on the truth of a plain fact, and keeping it separate from any notions of legal inference of which they know nothing, or subtile and frivolous doubts and conjectures to which they are quite unaccustomed—not only is it impossible to confound before them the plain fact, which they see and apprehend, with intricate matters of law, of which they profess to be ignorant, and with which they feel they have nothing to do—not only are all the attention, all the recollection, all the best feelings of the judge more completely called forth in collecting the facts, and in stating the result, as it occurs to his own mind, to a jury of plain and independent men,

when he knows that these men have their whole minds bent upon watching his procedure, and that they early form their opinion not merely of the cause but of him; but besides these circumtances, that are sufficient of themselves to recommend it, the trial by jury stamps in the breast of every inhabitant of the country, the feeling that he himself is connected with the administration of its justice. On the one hand it diffuses generally the knowledge of how justice is administered; and on the other, it imparts to the judges the conviction that their conduct is matter of universal observation and critisism. But enough has been said on the subject. The objections to trial by jury in civil causes cannot but be trifling and minute. Its advantages are great and extensive. It were almost sufficient to say, that where justice has been ill and partially administered, there have been no juries; wherever there have been juries, its course has been uniform, satisfactory, and unimpeachable. With those who have had an opportunity of witnessing these different modes of its administration, the introduction of juries would alone be sufficient to secure to the present proposition their most warm and hearty concurrence. But this, though its leading feature, though that which alone would bestow many of its advantages, and without which none of them could be secure, is not its only claim to approbation. It goes further into the evils complained of, and applies itself to their removal with as much simplicity in its mode of acting, and as much promise of efficacy in its effects, as can be well conceived to exist in a measure of so extensive and so complicated a nature.

'On the whole, it promises to give to Scotland the greatest boon she has ever derived from the legislature—the greatest boon any legislature can bestow—the substitution for an inefficient, a tedious, an unsatisfactory, and an uncertain administration of justice between man and man, a system of judicial proceeding in every respect accommodated to the encreasing fortunes of a flourishing, and intelligent people.' *Jo.*

Art. 22. *A Digest of the Bankrupt Laws*; with a Collection of the Statutes, and of the Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Law and Equity upon that Subject. By Basil Montagu, of Gray's Inn, Barrister at Law. 3 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Butterworth.

That among those who profess the law, many are not wanting who are distinguished by a laudable ambition, and by meritorious industry, is sufficiently well known: but their efforts are directed to the accumulation of wealth, or to success in their profession, while they are contented with the fame which is confined to their own circle. Those who appear in the character of authors, it should seem, feel an entire indifference to distinction in that line: for to the merit of presenting luminous views of the doctrines of law, acute criticisms on past decisions, and ingenious disquisitions on nice points, scarcely one writer in an age aspires; and rarely do we meet with a legal author who bestows pains on the distribution of his matter, the choice of his terms, or the structure of his style, in all which respects the admirable commentaries of Mr. Justice Blackstone afford

ford so fine a model. Legal works, as is exemplified in that masterly performance, admit of perfection in the didactic style; and by acquiring this species of excellence, we conceive that the young lawyer, while he served our literature and attained a name in the republic of letters, might at the same time lay a foundation for his own eminence in his profession.

The present performance is stated to be the result of many years of consideration. It is chiefly distinguished by the aim at method which it indicates: but this is less manifested in profound views and accurate analyses of the subject, than in those formal divisions which logicians have been in the habit of applying on all occasions. It is, however, a monument of laudable assiduity; and the abridgement of the decided cases, of which the second and third volumes consist, will render it particularly acceptable to those who are not furnished with the numerous works from which they are selected. Jo.

WEST INDIES.

Art. 21. *The Radical Cause of the present Distresses of the West India Planters pointed out*; and the Inefficiency of the Measures which have been hitherto proposed for relieving them demonstrated. By William Spence, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 103. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

Though Mr. Spence has been unable to persuade us to discard Adam Smith in order to entertain *his* new light, and to join him in an idle attempt again to set up a discarded sophism of a fallen sect, (see our last No. p. 80.) and in overlooking the mighty influence which commerce has on production, he has fully satisfied us, and will convince all his readers, that the case of the West India Planters is no other than the simple and too frequent case of persons who have overstocked the market with a given article; and that it admits of no other effectual remedy than the ordinary cure, viz. that of diminishing the produce. This matter is thoroughly sifted in the present pamphlet: but at the close of it, the author unfortunately introduces the notions promulgated in his former publication, and displays in a glaring light his inattention to that part of political economy which respects the causes of production. While, therefore, the concluding pages of the work are thus contaminated with egregious errors, the preceding, and by far the greater part of it, is ably and judiciously executed.

We cannot allow Mr. Spence to be a successful theorist, but we admit him to be an animated and dextrous controversialist. In the sound part of these pages, he shews much discrimination in exposing the sophisms, and qualifying the conclusions, of the advocates of the planters; and with equal felicity, he proves how groundless are many of their complaints, and how futile and preposterous are some of the expedients which they wish the country to adopt in their favour. While he warns the state against the enactment of regulations which would be not less ineffectual than oppressive, he very properly admits the claims of this important and respectable body to the sympathy of the public,—and also to relief, if any scheme of administering it, that is equitable and practical, could be suggested.

Those are important chapters in political economy which teach that trade should be free, and that it rarely happens that it is not injured when governments interpose to regulate it. This is the part that principally bears on the subject of which Mr Spence here treats; and while he betrays the most superficial ideas, if not a total ignorance, of the fructifying operations of commerce, and of its general beneficial influence, he shews himself to be perfect master of the heads which apply to the case of the planters. It is, however, no uncommon thing to have just views of parts of a system, and to be able to apply them with success, though as a whole it is comprehended very imperfectly; and a man may be able practically to avail himself of particular heads, while he is absolutely incompetent to grasp the whole, to criticise and qualify it, and to ascertain all its bearings.

Jo.

POLITICS.

Art. 24. *Commerce defended.* An Answer to the Arguments by which Mr. Spence* and others have attempted to prove that Commerce is not a Source of National Wealth. By James Mill, Esq. Author of an Essay on the Impolicy of a Bounty on the Exportation of Corn. 8vo. pp. 154. 4s. C. and R. Baldwin. 1808.

The title of this tract might be supposed to point at a half civilized country, or at a despotic government which dooms to the exercise of arms all those who are not necessary to the labours of agriculture: for little would any person think that such a vindication as the present could be requisite in a state, which has risen to unprecedented power and prosperity by means of that object which is here *defended;* and that boasts of writers who have investigated its nature, determined its province, and developed its effects, so as to leave those of other nations far behind them in that vast field.

Mr. Mill is aware of all the vulnerable points of his antagonist, and his thrusts are well aimed, and are rarely made without effect. It would seem that Mr. Spence had never bestowed a thought on the indirect influence of commerce on production; or rather, if he had not expressly admitted it, that he was in no degree aware of such influence; indeed, Mr Mill himself appears to us not much to have considered this circumstance, which requires only to be duly appreciated, and placed in a proper light, in order to expose in open day the fallacy and monstrous absurdity of Mr. Spence's positions. It is on this oversight, and on the universally discarded tenet of the economists in regard to productive labour, that the strange superstructure rests which is said *(mirabile dictu!)* to engage the admiration of that fine genius, the revered judge of the Admiralty! In the discussion on certain orders of council connected with this subject, we sincerely wish that this eminent person, while defending them, would state in his perspicuous and elegant language the principles and doctrines of the new professor of political economy!

* See our last Review, p. 80.

nomy! This would indeed be a triumph to Mr. Spence, whatever may be the fate of his tenets; and it would certainly be a high gratification to every man of taste, if the lecture should, as such things sometimes do, present itself to the public eye.

Our readers will not be displeased here to meet with the sentiments of an intelligent writer on a measure on which we refrain from giving any opinion, till we become better acquainted with it:

'The fact is, the British commerce has much more to fear from the injudicious regulations of the British government, than from the decrees of Bonaparte. The great instruments of that species of traffic, which must now be carried on with the Continent, are neutral bottoms. It will not be very difficult, however, for our ministers to put it out of the power of the neutrals to serve us in this important capacity. The late orders of council are of a nature to give effect to the decrees of Bonaparte, beyond any thing which the plenitude of his power could achieve. Instead of thwarting and restricting the intercourse of neutrals, Britain ought studiously to afford it every facility and accommodation. Wherever a neutral vessel obtains admittance into a continental port, means are afforded for introducing British goods.'

We omit to notice a few minute errors and oversights in this pamphlet, in order to testify, as the friends of humanity and our country, our acknowlegements to the able author for his judicious observations on the necessity and expediency of peace. Jo.

Art. 25. *Present State of the British Constitution historically illustrated.* By Britannicus. 8vo. pp. 182. 3s. Longman and Co. 1807.

If this pamphlet does not manifest deep research and brilliant criticism, it contains just, important, and for the most part accurate observations on a subject of the highest interest; and to men whose leisure and means of information are confined, this account of the origin and progress of our rights and liberties will be highly acceptable.

We are as zealous in vindicating a free press as this writer, but we cannot hold it to be the pure unalloyed blessing which it is here represented, since, like all other good things, it is liable to be abused. Its conduct on a late occasion was perhaps the principal cause of the present war, and we regard it as now interposing very material obstacles in the way of peace. It is not only at the service of the weak, the ignorant, and the prejudiced, but it lends itself to the speculators on the bad passions of men, and to the venal, who make the most active use of it. Yet we must admit that these are partial evils, and its general benefits we have neither inclination nor interest to controvert.—We must also object to the unlimited compliments which the author pays to public opinion. It is often long deceived, and if it becomes right at last, this is all that can be said. The writer approves as little as we do of its late adoption of the No Popery cry, of its approbation of the Copenhagen expedition, and of its anti-pacific turn. We admit its great services; and it is only against unqualified commendation that we speak. Jo.

Art.

Art. 26. *An important and infallible Secret discovered and developed in the Laws of Human Nature*, to render the Valour of British Soldiers and the Freedom of British Citizens invincible. Addressed to the British and American Nations. 8vo. 2s. Egerton.

Every fungus of the brain now shoots up and becomes a pamphlet. The conceit of the present writer (who appears to be a military man) is that the British people display *a peculiar spirit of sympathy in association*: and that this spirit, which augments physical force, when properly brought into action, must render Englishmen superior in force to all mankind. The simple maxim that *an Englishman will stand by his comrade* is here magnified into a wonderful discovery, and communicated with a great parade of phraseology. Mo-y.

Art. 27. *Thoughts on the Catholic Question.* By a Protestant of Ireland. 8vo. Pamphlet. Printed at Chatham, and sold in London by Budd.

To determine the important question, " should the restraints against the Catholics be continued or repealed ?" this writer institutes three distinct points of inquiry: ' 1. Whether, during any former period of our history, the restraints against the Catholics were conducive to the public good? 2. Whether, at the present period, these restraints redeem their partial evil by a greater sum of public benefit ? 3. Whether, under the present new and awful position of affairs, a concession to the Catholics would be a measure peculiarly beneficial ?"

In order to assist us in the solution of these questions, it is remarked that, however just and necessary the existence of test-laws might have been during the reign of Catholic persecution, while a Catholic prince pretended to the crown, and while a Catholic league and the political power of the Pope existed, yet, as none of these facts are now to be enumerated among our dangers, the ground of alarm from the Catholic religion is diminished, and in course the reasons which once were urged in support of these laws do not now prevail. ' Every circumstance (observes this writer,) has passed away, which formerly justified the exclusion of the Catholics from situations of trust and power.' Fairly and successfully does he encounter the apprehensions of the advocates for exclusion, by shewing the happy effects which must result from admitting Catholics into the legislature. This, he thinks, would be the most effectual way to expand their views, and to regenerate them. Give them the full privileges of subjects, and Napoleon would cease to have a partisan in Ireland.

' The changes produced in the minds of the Catholics who should obtain seats in Parliament, instead of endangering the establishment, would have a tendency directly the reverse. Remove from the Catholics the pressure of unnecessary restraints, and their understandings will expand, and the prejudices of their education wear away; the tide of public sentiment will circulate through their breasts, they will cease to be a diseased excrescence impeding the motions of the body politic.'

This

This is sound reason, which all who are conversant with the operation of knowlege on the mind will understand. In truth, through this pamphlet, the writer's views of the matter in debate are eminently luminous. When he arrives at the last branch of his inquiry, he demonstrates that religious disabilities are not only unnecessary but injurious; that they paralyze the physical strength of the empire; and that they ought, on the principle of self-preservation, to be abrogated.

We are directed to contrast our conduct with that of the enemy, who is tying together the bundle of twigs, while we are producing weakness by keeping them uncombined:

'With a policy commensurate to his ambition, every religious disability, every invidious distinction is abolished; he wields unchecked the immense population of his empire, and hurls it against the tottering thrones of Europe. While this awful scene is acting, England, infatuated England! clings to the maxims of ages that are past, splits herself into religious parties, and severs the sinews of her strength. Ye bigoted advocates of an obsolete policy! ye injurious eulogists of the Third William!—if that great Monarch, who curbed the insolence of Lewis XIV. and preserved the liberties of Europe, should arise from the tomb and re-assume the sceptre of these realms, what counsels would he sanction? With an attentive eye he would mark "the signs of the times," he would change his measures as the circumstances of the world underwent a change, and he would be ready to acknowledge that what was wise in the seventeenth century, might, in the nineteenth, be the highest folly.'

In the energetic pleadings for the Catholics of Ireland, which this pamphlet contains, the spirit of disaffection is not fomented: but they are exhorted to be tranquil, to rely on the justice of their cause, and to look forwards, as they well may, with a dignified serenity, to ultimate success.

Mo-y.

Art. 28. *Bank of England. A Letter to the Proprietors of Bank Stock,* in consequence of the Result of a general Meeting held at the Bank pursuant to Notice, 21st January 1808, on Special Affairs. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway.

Alarming apprehensions are entertained by this writer, both for the Bank and for every chartered body, in consequence of the acquiescence of the governor and company in the requisition from ministers, of a loan of *three millions, without interest, to the end of the war.* He ventures to predict that it will prove the death blow to the security and liberty of British subjects, if the property of every individual company is to be at the command of the minister whenever he chooses to call for it: the Directors are accused of not adhering to the spirit of their oaths; they are asked what right they have to accumulate a surplus without dividing it among the proprietors; and they are reminded that it would not have been in the power of government to have taken it, had it been divided. This statement, as far as it goes, may be correct: but, since the coquetry which has subsisted between the Government and the Bank, it may be wise not to inquire too deeply. Both parties thoroughly understand each

other; and perhaps the old lady of Thread-needle street is perfectly aware that she shall be no loser by her apparent generosity to her gallant, who is well intitled to the loan which he solicits for past favors. Under existing circumstances, it may be for the benefit of all concerned that they should keep on good terms. Mo-y.

EDUCATION.

Art. 29. *A General Pronouncing Dictionary*, shewing at one View the Orthography, Explanation, Accentuation, and Pronunciation of all the purest and most approved Terms in the English Language, according to the most eminent Lexicographers and Orators. By William Enfield, M A. Author of Elements of Natural Philosophy, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 319. 3s. 6d. boards. Crosby and Co. 1807.

To express by letters the nice distinction between sounds is no easy task, and therefore no two persons who have attempted it have agreed in every particular. This, however, is not the only difficulty; others arise from the different manner in which the same words are pronounced by persons of eminence and distinction; and others, also, from the caprice of fashion: add to which, that the same words are pronounced in some respects variously by the same speaker, at different times, according as the subject is grave and solemn or sprightly and gay. On account of these impediments, works of this nature can give only occasional assistance; and their chief utility arises from consultation when a person hears words pronounced contrary to his accustomed manner, or from the use of them which may be made by foreigners.

In examining the work before us, we find that the author has taken no small pains in the compilation of it. His scheme of the vowels makes them comprehend 22 sounds, and that of the consonants represents their powers to be likewise numerous. We were for the most part pleased with his mode of pronunciation: but we remarked that, were the soft sound of *g* represented by *j*, and not by *dzh*, it would be more intelligible, at least to English persons. We also think that, were an appendix inserted, containing the pronunciation of scriptural and other proper names, it would be a valuable addition. The paper is good, and the typography is neat. W. Re-s.

Art. 30. *Thoughts on the Subject of Education at School*: addressed to his Friends. By John Bullar. 8vo. 1s. Williams and Smith.

We find by this pamphlet that Mr. Bullar is a schoolmaster at (or near) Southampton; and the branches of learning in which he proposes to instruct his pupils are here pointed out: but he chiefly enlarges on the religious education which he designs to give them; and he informs parents that he cannot allow any of his scholars to be absent from him on the Lord's day, but that, though he has no disesteem of the venerable, pathetic, and devotional liturgy of the established church, he shall insist on their attending him to his own place of religious worship. This notification is ingenuous, and the tract is sensibly written: but Mr. B. must expect that, as

a recommendation of his seminary, its influence must be confined within those bounds which he has himself in fact prescribed to it by his restrictions in religious matters. Mo-y.

Art. 31. *Charles et Charlotte, ou Premiere Education de l'Enfance.* 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

By the aid of dialogues, fables, and short tales, it is here intended to teach young persons the first principles of knowlege, and just notions of things; and the work is adapted for the use of children who are begining to read the French language. W.Re-s.

Art. 32. *L'Ile des Enfans: Histoire Véritable: par Madame* de Genlis. 12mo. 2s. Boosey. 1807.

This tale was suggested by the story of Robinson Crusoe, and is designed to instruct young persons in the various expedients which would be useful to them if they were constrained to live by themselves. It is well calculated for this purpose, and the interest excited in the perusal will allure young people to improvement in their French studies. Do

Art. 33. *A new and easy Introduction to the Hebrew Language,* upon the plan of Grammar in general. Designed to encourage and promote the Study of that Language, by facilitating the Acquirement of its Principles upon a Plan which in no Work of the Kind has been hitherto adopted. By the Rev. James Williams Newton, M.A. Minor Canon of the Cathedral Church of Norwich. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

An attempt is made in this publication to teach the Hebrew by the same method which is pursued in the case of other languages. Of the propriety of substituting it for that which the generality of grammars contains, the learned may have different opinions: but we think that the plan here adopted may be very beneficial in teaching those who may begin the study of the language at an early age, and is therefore very appropriate for schools; though perhaps for students who commence at a more advanced period of life, the usual mode may be preferable.

As the vowel points are not here used, in the rules given for pronunciation, the author directs that, when a word or syllable consists of consonants only, the vowel to be added shall be that which is used to express the word represented by the elementary character in the Alphabet; as the vowel succeeding a d*a*leth should be an *a*; succeeding a b*e*th, an *e*; succeeding a g*i*mel, an *i*, &c. Since it is allowed, however, that the inserted sounds are of no real consequence, that method which creates the least perplexity naturally suggests itself as the most appropriate; and in consequence, that simple uniform sound which is commonly used, and is equivalent to a Greek *Epsilon*, ought not to be unnecessarily rejected. The other rules respecting pronunciation lead to unnecessary difficulties, and are therefore liable to the same objection as the preceding.—Respecting the Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, and Interjections, the student is referred to Lexicons for the requisite information: but the work would certainly have been more complete had they been introduced in their proper place.

Although

Although it has appeared to us necessary to make the foregoing remarks, the present work has considerable merit; and we hope that it may be serviceable in attaining a language, which, to clergymen in particular, is of great importance. W. Re-s.

Art. 34. *The Manual of Youth*, containing, I. Sixty Fables, French and English, ornamented with one hundred and twenty Cuts, representing the Subjects of the Fables in the French Part, and furnishing, in the English Part a Series of elementary Lessons in the several Styles of Drawing. II. Remarks on Rhetoric, with various Examples on the different Styles, Figures, and Tropes. III. A Large Collection of Extracts in Prose and Verse, selected from the most approved Authors, English and French. By J. Ouiseau, A.M. 12mo. pp. 458 8s. Boards. Symonds. 1807.

After having transcribed this copious title, a more particular description of the work is unnecessary. We have been pleased with the novel idea of making the embellishments a mode of teaching drawing; the subjects, on this account, are represented larger than would otherwise have been necessary; and they constitute a good series. The Fables are each literally translated from French into English, and will prove useful to those who study either language. The Remarks on Rhetoric contain an explanation of the various figures, with examples at large, taken from English authors: the young student will find these explanations concise and comprehensive, and will be gratified by the elegance of the illustrations. The extracts, which the third part contains, are judiciously selected from the best authors in both languages, and consist of short specimens of their different styles. Dº

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 35. *Pros and Cons, for Cupid and Hymen*: in a Series of metrical satiric Dialogues. Exhibiting the Horrors and Delights of being over Head and Ears in Love; with the supreme Felicity and Wretchedness of Matrimony. To which are added other Pieces. By Jenkin Jones, Author of Hobby Horses, and the Philanthropist; and Editor of Love and Satire. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Allen. 1807.

We have been not a little amused with some parts of these poems, which in general possess an easy flow of versification, attended however by a want of correctness which might and certainly ought to have been avoided. Our greatest objection is to their length, and to the numerous repetitions which they contain. Owing to these redundancies, that which at first appears *funny* becomes tiresome and insipid: had the author written only half as much, he would have pleased us twice as well. O.

Art. 36. *Musical Dramas*, with select Poems and Ballads. By John Rannie. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Allen.

If these dramas call forth no severity of censure, neither do they excite in our minds any glow of approbation: a sentence, of itself sufficiently unfavorable to works which depend solely on public applause. O.

Art.

Art 37. *Every Day Characters*, a Satirical Comedy. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons.

We have here a very dull attempt at wit, in which the keen edge of satire is hacked like a hand-saw, till it has lost all its power of cutting. O.

Art. 38. *The Caitiff of Corsica*, or the universal Banditto. An historical Drama, in five Acts: exhibiting the Characters, moral and political, of the principal Personages throughout the French Revolution With their Portraits, reduced from the original Oil Paintings in the Museum at Paris. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Budd.

A most violent attack on Bonaparte: but, hard indeed would be our fate, if such were our best weapons of offence and defence! O.

Art 39. *Della Ragion Poetica tra' Greci Latini ed Italiani, di Vicenzo Gravina.* 12mo. 7s. Boards. Becket.

This is another of those handsome little volumes, which have been so carefully edited by Mr. Mathias, and to which every Italian scholar will gladly assign a niche in his library. We need scarcely remark that the refined criticism, and the elegant erudition, which characterize Gravina's Treatise on Poetry, sufficiently intitle it to the distinction which it has obtained from the learned editor. The dedicatory *Canzone* flows with all the grace of the Tuscan muse: but we are tempted to wish for a more ample sketch of the life and character of the author, than can be drawn from the short and meagre notices of Tiraboschi. Muir.

Art. 40. *Opere Scelte dell' Abate Metastasio. Rivedute da Leonardo Nardini, ad Uso degli Studiosi della Lingua Italiana. Seconda Edizione.* 12mo. 2 vols. 10s. Boards. Dulau and Co.

With the first edition of this selection, the readers of Italian poetry have been for some years familiarly acquainted; and a second is now presented to them, in which we believe no material difference occurs. The pieces, which are culled with judgment, and printed with correctness, form an excellent and agreeable introduction to the study of Italian poetry. Vol. I. contains *Adriano, Artaserse, La Clemenza di Tito, Demetrio, Demofoonte, Olympiade, La Libertà a Nice, Palinodia della Libertà a Nice*, and *La Partenza*; Vol II. *Attilio Regolo, Le Cinesi, Ciro Riconoscinto, Isacco, Isola Disabitata, Temistocle*, and *Zenobia*; besides fifteen of the Cantate, two of the Canzonette, the hymn to Venus, and two Madrigals. Each volume consists of 284 pages, and is executed on a neat and distinct type. Do

Art. 41. *The Battle of Trafalgar*, a Poem. To which is added a Selection of fugitive Pieces, chiefly written at Sea, by Laurence Halloran, D.D., late Chaplain of the Britannia, and Secretary to Rear Admiral the Earl of Northesk, K.B. 8vo. pp. 130. 10s. 6d. Boards. White, &c.

Dr. Halloran's muse breathes a spirit of animation not unworthy of the great achievement which he has undertaken to celebrate; and the plan of the narration is well arranged, being sufficiently minute to interest, without dwelling too long on scenes which are calculated to excite horror. The author has introduced the Genius of the Rock

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of Gibraltar announcing, with vindictive joy, to the British fleet the impending loss of their commander; and Nelson himself appears to Captain Hardy, in the night succeeding the action. This machinery reminds us of a Spanish poem intitled *the Shade of Nelson*, which we noticed in our Appendix to Vol. 50. N.S.—Dr. H.'s Spirit is, however, a spirit of consolation; whereas the Spaniard has introduced Nelson as despairing of the fortunes of his country, and holding a language somewhat resembling the angry bodings of Dr. Halloran's enthralled Genius of the Rock. The description of the explosion of a captured ship may serve as a specimen of the poet's style:

'Sudden her frame a dire explosion tore,
And shook Heaven's concave with th' enormous roar,
The trembling waves recede beneath her keel,
And Ocean's depths the dread concussion feel;
While, borne impetuous thro' the troubled air,
Like threat'ning meteors, blazing fragments glare;
Then a red column, tow'ring to the skies,
In dreadful grandeur slowly seem'd to rise;
While frequent coruscations from its side,
Like lightning's flashes, spread their terrors wide,
Till in one fiery shower it fell, combin'd,
And to a pitchy cloud the air resigned!'

We are sorry that we cannot speak in terms equally favourable of Dr. H.'s lighter compositions, but his manner is seldom free from a stiffness which paralyzes his attempts at playfulness and humor.

J. Mans. jun.r

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot possibly find time to answer all such letters as that of *Nemesis*, and the remoteness of the references in this case renders a reply the less necessary. The *eulogium*, with which the writer finds fault, was a quotation, as due attention ought to have apprized him; and with its propriety we had no concern.

Mr. T., of Skinner-street, has some reason for complaining of the trial of his patience: but circumstances have arisen which have made it unavoidable on our part. He may be assured, however, that, though judgment is respited, sentence will be ultimately pronounced.

It is with regret that we decline to fulfil the requests of *Juvenis*: but we have always found it necessary to *protest* such *drafts* on our time and attention. We cannot, like the conjurer in the Old Bailey, *answer all questions by sea and land.*

The production of W. A. K.'s ingenuity does not come within the sphere of our notice.

In the APPENDIX to the last vol. of the M. R., which was published with the No. for January, p. 465. l. 11. fr. bott. for 'become', r. *became*; and p. 511. l. 27. for 'have', r. *dare*.

Errors. pp. 124, 138, 164, 204.